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EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES, SELECTED PAPERS AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES.

MICHIGAN UNIV., ANN ARBOR,INST.LAB.AND INDUS.REL.

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IN "AN ASSESSMENT OF THE SUITABILITY OF THE FACETED STRUCTURE OF WRU EDUCATION THESAURUS AS A FRAMEWORK FOR PREPARATION OF A THESAURUS OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY TERMS" THE STUDY IS BRIEFLY DESCRIBED. COUNTS OF THE 1779 TERMS EXTRACTED FROM TEXTUAL MATERIAL ON ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY ARE GIVEN BY FACETS AND SUBFACETS, AND "FREE INDEXING" TERMS ARE LISTED FOR 11 ARTICLES. IN "PROBLEMS, RESEARCH, AND RECOMMENDATIONS IN THE EMPLOYMENT TESTING OF MINORITY APPLICANTS," MOLLY R. NEWCOMB REVIEWS THE LITERATURE TO EXAMINE THE INCIDENCE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM, IDENTIFY THE TYPES OF PROBLEMS MINORITY GROUP APPLICANTS HAVE WITH TESTS, SUGGEST SOLUTIONS TO THE MINORITY TESTING PROBLEM, DISCUSS PROBLEMS UNIQUE TO THE CIVIL SERVICE SYSTEMS, AND DERIVE RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING THE MINORITY TESTING SITUATION. SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES COVER THREE ASPECTS OF MINORITY EMPLOYMENT--(1) THE NEGRO AND ORGANIZED LABOR, 93 REFERENCES, (2) TESTING MINORITY GROUP JOB APPLICANTS, 33 REFERENCES, AND (3) THE NEGRO AND EMPLOYMENT, 169 REFERENCES. INCLUDED IN THE BIBLIOGRAPHIES ARE BOOKS, JOURNALS, PERIODICALS, PAMPHLETS, RESEARCH REPORTS, AND NEWSPAPERS DATING FROM 1951 THROUGH 1966 WITH MOST IN THE 1960'S. (ET)

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EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES: SELECTED PAPERS AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES.

Prepared for: The U.S. Office of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Prepared by: The Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations
The University of Michigan - Wayne State University

CONTENTS

An Assessment of the Suitability of the Faceted Structure of the WRU Education Thesaurus as a Framework for Preparation of a Thesaurus of Economic Opportunity Terms -- 24 pages

Problems, Research, and Recommendations in the Employment Testing of Minority Applicants -- 63 pages

The Negro and Organized Labor: A Selected Annotated Bibliography -- 19 pages

Testing of Minority Group Job Applicants: A Selected Annotated Bibliography -- 10 pages

The Negro and Employment: A Selected Annotated Bibliography -- 37 pages

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE SUITABILITY OF THE FACETED STRUCTURE OF THE WRU EDUCATION THESAURUS AS A FRAMEWORK FOR PREPARATION OF A THESAURUS OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY TERMS

Prepared for: The Institute of Industrial and Labor Relations
University of Michigan - Wayne State University

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AN ASSESSMENT OF THE SUITABILITY OF THE FACETED STRUCTURE OF THE WRU EDUCATION THESAURUS AS A FRAMEWORK FOR PREPARATION OF A THESAURUS OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY TERMS

Introduction

The Western Reserve University Education Thesaurus is comprised of seventeen "facets" or clusters of conceptually related terms. The facets and their subdivisions -- subfacets and groups -- provide an extremely flexible and and helpful framework for structuring interterm relationships. On the basis of discussions with Dr. Louis Ferman in the fall of 1966, the faceted structure of the Education Thesaurus appeared to offer an equally satisfactory organizational structure for a thesaurus of economic opportunity terms. This pilot project was initiated to assess this possibility more objectively.

Procedures

Accordingly, 1779 terms* were extracted from the textual materials on economic opportunity provided by the Institute. No reference was made to the Education Thesaurus during this process in order to minimize any bias in favor of selecting "similar terms." The terms extracted covered a broad range of concepts. The extracted terms were then sorted into appropriate facets, **sub-facets**, and groups of the Education Thesaurus. There was no attempt at this time to normalize the vocabulary, i.e., to resolve any problems of synonymy or ambiguity. The results are given in Attachment A.

---

*single words and multi-word combinations

To provide additional insight into the problems that might be encountered in thesaurus preparation, several articles were "free indexed," i.e., terms were extracted which represented the important information of the document, without reference to any existing indexing language (e.g., the Education Thesaurus or the Standard List of Subject Headings in Industrial Relations). These "indexes" are given in Attachment B.

Conclusions

There is no question that the faceted structure of the education thesaurus is adaptable to the terminology of economic opportunity. That fact would reduce thesaurus preparation time by as much as 50%. It is also apparent that many of the problems of developing an indexing language and system for the literature on economic opportunity are analagous to those for the literature of education. Concepts, for example, are frequently expressed by phrases, sentences and even paragraphs. The concepts are difficult to express in the economical language of descriptors (index terms).

A good example is the concept "train the poor to help the poor." Furthermore, the complexity of relationships between terms as displayed in the sample indexes* will probably necessitate the use of some structural devices, such as links or roles, in the indexing system.

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*Attachment B

ATTACHMENT A

THESAURUS MODIFICATION
ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY FACETS

THESAURUS MODIFICATION

Total terms selected	1779
Total terms classified	1645
No. of terms identified in Ed. Terms Thesaurus	219
No. of terms not classified	134

No. of term groups classified	184
Tentative facet nos.	17

Tentative facet headings:

1. Ability
2. Activities
3. Affect
4. Economy and Finance
5. Geographical
6. Interpersonal relations
7. Legal
8. Measurement
9. Occupation
10. Organization
11. Physical Facilities
12. Physiological and Cultural
13. Population
14. Relationship
15. Social
16. Things
17. Time

THESAURUS MODIFICATION

Facet Heading	No. of Terms Classified
Ability	
Ability	12
Aptitude	3
Skill	11
Achievement	10
Performance	10
Experience	7
Knowledge, Understanding	3
Educational Level	16
Activities	
Process and Activities (General)	4
Action Words	5
Efforts	2
Task, Work, Duties	8
Services	3
Role, Role-playing	3
Behavior Terms	3
Perpetuate, Merger	3
Communication	9
Discussion, Conference	16
Conversation	3
Public Relations	8
Guidance, Counseling	7
Assistance	6
Education, Training	24
Educational Program	10
Programs	5
Policy	15
Principles, Guidelines, Rules	10

Facet Heading	No. of Terms Classified
Activities (con't)	
Change, Turnover	7
Technological Change	4
Growth, Economic Growth	5
Increase	3
Broaden, Widening	2
Improvement, Upgrading	4
Gains	3
Development	2
Transfering	3
Promotion, Advancement	8
Lowering, Demotion	11
Hiring, Firing	16
Recruitment	11
Placement	8
Employment	10
Administering	7
Control, Check	8
Correction, Adjust, Compensation	13
Grievance	5
Use, Utilization	8
Beginning, Start	8
Eliminating, Stopping	10
Influence, Power	10
Backing, Support	7
Pressure	7
Voting, Elections	4
Research, Prediction	11
Decision Making	9
Analysis, Classification, Generalization	7
Evaluation, Testing	26
Observation, Inspection	5
Selection, Screening	8

Facet Heading	No. of Terms Classified
Affect	
Affect (General), Positive and and Negative Emotion	31
Motivation	8
Goals, Intent	4
Interest, Preference	11
Attitudes (General)	12
Aspiration	3
Reaction	6
Opinion	13
Psychological State, Personality	11
Personal Appearance Traits	17
Work Habits	5
Economy and Finance	
Economy, Finance (General)	24
Funds, Money, Subsidy	9
Profits, Costs	7
Income, Wage, Salary	25
Economic Level	8
Geographical	
Geographical Location, Area	27
District Level	5
Names of City	6
Interpersonal Relations	
Interpersonal Relations (General)	22
Friction, Strain, Combat	6
Violation, Distrubance	12
Racial Antagonism	4
Walk-out, Strike, Picketing	4

Facet Headings	No. of Terms Classified
Interpersonal Relations (con't)	
Protests	3
Criticism	3
Objection, Resistance	7
Complaint	6
Rejection, Denial	6
Segregation, Discrimination	23
Treatment	3
Integration	8
Membership, Participation	15
Legal	
Laws, Legislation	12
Judicial Process	4
Contract, Agreement	9
Provisions, Clauses	11
Measurement	
Measurement (General)	21
Criteria, Standards	14
Causes, Variables	5
Sample, Distribution	9
Score	11
Validity, Reliability	6
Occupation	
Occupation, Job (General)	19
Worker, Employee	15
Coworker, Associates	7
Applicant	8

Facet Heading	No. of Terms Classified
Occupation (con't)	
Trade, Craft	4
Craftsmen, Skilled	5
Apprenticeship, Journeyman	5
Professionals	14
Technical Work	13
Employers, Managers	23
Personnel People	10
Leaders	12
Specialists	3
Teachers	6
Service Occupation	15
Clerical, Sales, Financial Occupation	17
Communications	5
Transportation	5
Agriculture	4
Primary Laborers	8
Construction, Contractors	3
Foundry and Mining Work	4
Production Jobs	9
Machine Operating	4
Menial and Unskilled Jobs	17

Facet Heading	No. of Terms Classified
Organization	
Unions by Specific Name	27
Unions by Characteristics	13
Union Locals	10
Union People	10

Facet Heading	No. of Terms Classified
Organization (con't)	
Government	9
Government Agencies	4
Schools	17
Organizations	11
Agencies	13
Council, Committee	15
Units, Departments	5
Business, Industry	6
Institutions, Company, Firm	11
Plant, Mills, Shop	14
Physical Facilities	
Facilities, Community Centers	6
Rooms, Office	11
Physiological and Cultural	
Race	12
Ethnic, Minority	5
Nationality	6
Family	6
Cultural Background	5
Sex	7
Age	10
Religion	6
Population	
Population	6
Manpower Resources	21
Occupational Group	3
Social Group	6

Facet Headings	No. of Terms Classified
Relationship	
Relationship, Correlation	3
Stability, Efficiency	8
Isolation, Separation	3
Difference, Gap	8
Pattern	13
Structure, Organization	6
Model, Frame of Reference	4
Social	
Responsibility, Obligation	6
Significance, Meaning	10
Effects	2
Needs, Specifications	8
Value, Merit, Ethics	6
Social and Work Conditions	15
Environment, Situation	12
Freedom, Right, Justice	9
Exception, Privileges	4
Convenience, Comforts	3
Problems, Issues, Safety	8
Job Opportunities Employment Security	14
Things	
Things (General)	4
Publications, Newspapers	11
Application Forms	6
Placement Records, Work History	9
Tables, Payroll	3
Time	
Time (General)	8
Period	10
Time Schedule	3
Seniority	7

ATTACHMENT B

SAMPLE INDEXES

"The Limited Potential for Negro-White Job Equality," by
W. Ellison Chalmers (monograph)

Lower class Negroes
rate of progress
employment
criteria

analysis
present educational system
present economic system

declining industries

coalition
pressure groups
politicians
civil rights groups

solution
government manipulation
economy

solution
improvement
educational system

structure
demands
civil rights groups

employers
preferential treatment

union
employer
racial policies

white attitude
collective guilt

Negro-White
employment ratios
rate of change

prediction
Negro employment

Job equality

Employment Act of 1946

1965

"A More Productive Role for the Negro in the South's Economy,"
by W. Ellison Chalmers (monograph)

the South
economy

Negro job status
job market limitations

regional
local
employment weaknesses

economy
low growth rate

White employer discrimination
union discrimination

structural deficiencies
labor market

resistance to change
Negro sub-culture

effectiveness
antidiscrimination measures
affirmative action

technological unemployment

federal unemployment programs
local unemployment programs

new entrants
older workers
unskilled
poorly educated

Negro job improvement
White job improvement

1964

"Economic Status of Negroes in the Nation and in the South,"
by V. Henderson

the nation
the South
economic reorganization

deterioration
economic status
Negroes

economic progress
influenced
urban and racial climate

patterns of migration
South and the non-South
rural areas and the city

population drain
youth
well-educated
Negro
the South

farm employment
decrease

manufacturing employment
increase

dollar gap

Southern poverty
shift
discrimination
education

solution
vocational training
intensified training
Negroes

estimate
job demands

solution
fair employment practices
increased minimum wage
area redevelopment programs
adult education
school desegregation

Henderson, con't.

table
occupational distribution
area
race
sex

table
population change
state
race

table
median income
families
persons
area
state
sex (male)
age
race
education

table
per capita personal income

table
Negro purchasing power
urban area

1962

"Racial Inequality in Employment: The Patterns of Discrimination," by Herbert Hill. The Annals of the American Academy (Jan. 1965) pp. 30-47.

racial inequality
employment
patterns of discrimination

increasing
average income differential

the South
Negro

textile industry
heavy industry
tobacco industry
pulp and papermaking industry
railway workers
ILGWU

organized labor
craft unions

apprenticeship
vocational training

state employment services

out-of-town labor

separate seniority lines

solution
federal law
fair employment practices

1965

nationality locals
segregated locals

Plans for Progress

HARYOU Report

Smith-Hughes Act
Manpower Development and Training Act

technological innovation
Negro employment

"Some Work-Related Cultural Deprivations of Lower Class
Negro Youths," by Joseph S. Hines. Poverty in America, pp. 384-389.

lower-class
Negro youths

judgmental
realistic
work-related
cultural deprivation

socialization
irrelevant job models

exclusion
prevailing work ethos

alienation
modern labor market
job ways

physical appearance
manners
awkwardness
unsophisticated

functional illiteracy
adolescent character defects

inadequacy
mathematical skills
scientific skills

lack
basic education

"The Economics of Equality," by Tom Kahn. Poverty in America.
pp. 153-172.

Negro-White
dollar gap
unemployment gap
relative income gap

increase
Negro blue collar workers

decrease
blue collar jobs

economic inequalities
legal and social equality

technological developments
structure of the labor force

disparity
corporate profits
workers' purchasing power

insufficiency
current government programs

solution
full employment

non-solution
equal opportunity
preferential treatment

failure
private economy
job creation

Manpower Development and Training Act -- 1962
programs
the South

"Negroes in a Changing Labor Market," by Charles C. Killingsworth·
Jobs and Color.

historical survey
Negro history
Negro labor force

change
pattern
demand for labor

table
unemployment rate
age
sex
race
region
years of education

solution
remedial education
job training
intensive counseling

solution
participation
the poor
War on Poverty

unemployment
causes

1965

"Louisville," by Benjamin Muse (Southern Regional Council, May, 1964).

Louisville, Kentucky
case study

desegregation
public accomodations
public schools
employment
housing

race relations
reform

formation
human relations commission
structure
policies

local level
anti-discrimination legislation

support
public administration

biracial
block meetings

block clubs

films
pamphlets

1964

"The Culture of Unemployment: Some notes on Negro Children," by Michael Schwartz and George Henderson. Blue Collar World (ed. Shostak and Gomberg), pp. 459-467.

chronic unemployment
culture of unemployment
Negro children

The Protestant Ethic

means orientation
ends orientation

motivation to work
change

work-value
dissonance

retreatism
resentment
rebellion
life style

broken homes
maternal authority
paternal authority
matriarchal family patterns

church attendance

interviewing
adolescent
lower class
male
Negro

Negro interviewers

Dean's Alienation Scale
Strodtbeck V-Scale

research
interviews

1964

"The Negro Wage-Earner and Apprenticeship Training Programs,"
by NAACP

Negro youth
exclusion
apprenticeship training programs

Negro
motivation

lack
skilled role models
Negro

Negro attitude
blue collar jobs
seasonal jobs

dual seniority lists

apprenticeship
wage system

residential segregation

industrial nepotism
cronyism

recruitment practices

union discrimination
management discrimination

unequal
high school education

shortage
skilled workers

table
skilled craft distribution
race

table
Negro apprentice distribution

New York State Apprenticeship Council

limited resources
limited action
public apprenticeship agencies
Fair Employment Practices Commission

recommendations

1960

Civil Rights, Employment, and the Social Status of Negroes, by Harold Sheppard and Herbert Striner, pp. 32-45.

correlation
low income
rural origin
low job status
high unemployment

correlation
family size
poverty

family structure
job status
employment problems

birth rate
family planning programs

fatherless families
matriarchal families

ghetto subculture
styles of life

personality distortions

sex-identity problem

motivation

job aspirations

role
status
Negro male
Negro female

inferior education

program
train
Negro male "motivators"

1966

PROBLEMS, RESEARCH, AND RECOMMENDATIONS
IN THE
EMPLOYMENT TESTING OF MINORITY APPLICANTS

Prepared for: The Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations
University of Michigan - Wayne State University

By: Molly R. Newcomb
Research Assistant

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

I. Incidence and Importance of the Problem Today 1

A. Civil Rights Requirements and Pressures 1

B. Incidence of Test Usage for Selection 3

C. Current Levels of Competence in Testing 5

D. Importance of Tests in the Selection Process 11

II. Types of Problems Minority Group Applicants Have With Tests 12

A. Problems Stemming from the Applicant's Background 12

(1) Physical Problems

(2) Informal Education (Cultural Exposure)

(3) Formal Education

(4) Attitudes and Values

(5) Personality Problems

B. Problems Stemming from the Testing Situation 18

(1) Examiner

(2) Testing Conditions

(3) The Test Itself

C. Problems Stemming from the Background of the Tests 22

(1) Norms and Standardization Procedures

(2) Validity Problems

(3) Reliability Problems

(4) Means of Selection of Tests

D. Examples of Problems with Specific Types of Tests 26

(1) Performance Tests

(2) Situation Tests

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

PAGE

(3) Perceptual Tests

(4) Work Knowledge and Achievement Tests

(5) Personality and Preference Tests

(6) General Aptitude and Intelligence Tests;Tests of Different Types of Intellectual Abilities

III. Suggested Solutions to the Minority Testing Problem 32

A. Elimination of Testing 32

B. Elimination of the Cultural Biases in Tests 32

C. Improvement of the Testing Situation 36

D. Addition of Points to Minority Applicants' Scores 37

E. Improvement of Test Validity 38

F. Training of Minority Group Members 44

G. Supplementing the Test Results 45

IV. Problems Special to the Civil Services 48

V. Summary and Recommendations 51

I. INCIDENCE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM TODAY

Why has employment testing become an issue for minority group members? Civil rights pressures, the increasing use of testing, and problems of test validity combine to make this an important question.

I-A. Civil Rights Requirements and Pressures

When Leon Myart (a Chicago Negro) brought a discrimination charge against the Motorola Company, the hearing examiner for the Illinois Fair Employment Practice Commission argued that the test which allegedly disqualified Myart did not "lend itself to equal opportunity to qualify for the hitherto culturally deprived and the disadvantaged groups." [French, p. 33.] The implication that a standardized test could be ethnically or racially discriminatory assumed even greater importance for employers with the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawing discriminatory hiring. The Tower Amendment to Title VII, Section 703 (h) guaranteed the right of the employer "to give and to act upon the results of any professionally developed ability test provided that such test, its administration, or action upon the results is not designed, intended, or used to discriminate because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin," [Wallace, p. 1.] The question remained, however, whether or not tests did discriminate in spite of the fact that they might not be intentionally used for this purpose. For example, an employer might inadvertently discriminate by using tests which give people with equal chances of job success unequal chances of being hired. Dr. Philip Ash states, "Tests may be held to discriminate in the social sense if they deny equal opportunity for consideration. A test may operate in this manner:

> (a) when scores on it tend to differentiate between identifiable subgroups, where the subgrouping itself is not a relevant selection factor and either:
>
> (b) scores for the lower group underpredict performance on the job when the standards of the upper group are applied, or
>
> (c) scores on the test do not predict job performance for either group." [Ash (C), p. 9.]

The Civil Rights Act is only one manifestation of the growing pressures toward equal rights for underprivileged groups. There have been economic boycotts, civil disturbances, demonstrations, and increasing social problems in the "inner cities." These have led to increased social awareness and concern on the part of more fortunate groups, causing increased interest and investment in efforts to break the vicious cycle of deprived childhood with its resulting poverty leading to more deprived children. The seriousness of the employment situation can be seen in the recent report on automation by the National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress: "If non-whites continue to hold the same proportion of jobs in each occupation as in 1964, the non-white unemployment rate in 1975 will be more than five times that for labor as a whole." [Gordon (B), p. 1.] Support for this interpretation of trends comes from California, where company spokesmen maintain that the increasing demands of technology and the need for more educated first-line supervisors have necessitated raising hiring standards, thus increasing employment difficulties for disadvantaged applicants. [Rusmore (A), p. 11.]

Thus, pressures arising both from the civil rights movement and from rising technical qualifications for jobs are causing companies to emphasize objective, standardized, relatively stringent selection procedures, such as standardized tests. These tests not only tend to eliminate people below certain levels of formal education (presumably correlated with technical ability), but also provide uniform, written proof of "equal opportunity" selection practices. The trend toward standardized testing is strengthened by such beliefs as the following: "Even if it [the testing program] saved one [bad risk per year] it would pay for itself five times over," [Ricklefs, p. 2.] and that "Minority groups, as such, should be favorably inclined to the use of ability tests, since tests constitute a universal standard of competence and potential." [Brim, p. 127.] These statements are open to question on behalf of the disadvantaged applicant, for tests can inadvertently discriminate and may "save" the employer from many good risks, as well as bad ones.

I-B. Incidence of Test Usage for Selection

The importance of the testing problem is more than theoretical. One study shows that the percentage of employers surveyed using tests jumped from 64% in 1958 to 84% in 1963 ["Survey of Hiring

Procedures," p. 2f.] and a recent California study found 75% of the middle and large sized companies studied using tests. [Rusmore (B), p. 5.] Other observers have been similarly impressed by this trend. [Goslin, p. 96f.; Ricklefs, p. 1.; Udy, p. 1.] The increased use of objective tests is much more marked in relatively large companies. [Goslin, p. 96f.; Rusmore (B), p. 23.] This means that although only 75% of the companies use tests, more than 75% of the jobs are affected by testing. [Rusmore (B), p. 5.]

Another factor emphasizing the importance of testing for the disadvantaged applicant is in what instances tests are given: Gordon finds tests are used to screen people primarily at the lower levels of employment, while Udy says standardized testing is probably most likely to be used where: (a) vast numbers of people must be assigned to different jobs, and (b) few differences which are defined as culturally relevant to the jobs can be found among the applicants. [Gordon (A), p. 18; Udy, p. 2.] These lower-level, less specialized jobs are the ones for which most minority applicants hope to qualify. Another major segment of the job market covered by standardized tests is that of the civil service: in most cases federal, state, and local levels are legally required to make test scores an important basis for selection. [Goslin, p. 110f.]

An examination of the type of tests now widely used gives even more cause for concern: two surveys found that general intelligence or intellectual tests were in much greater use than other types of tests, even though evidence showing cultural bias on this type of test is stronger than for any other single type. (See Section II-D.)

I-C. Current Levels of Competence in Testing

Since testing is so widely used in selection procedures, a relevant question is: what is the technical quality of most of this employment testing? In what ways does the actual practice of testing meet or fall short of employers' and applicants' expectations?

The first step in initiating a testing program is selection of the tests. Experts agree that this is best done by analyzing the specific job skills and validating tests for each specific requirement of each job. In practice, however, most tests are installed because "it seemed to be a good operating practice" -- only 30% of the tests in one survey were installed by professionals after job analysis, or installed to meet a specific identified need. [Rusmore (B), p. 1.] The criteria for preferred tests were: shorter testing time, ease of administration, ease of scoring, and lack of walk-outs by applicants. [Rusmore (B), p. 2.] Often tests remain in use longer than the term of employment of personnel department employees and are kept on because they are "known to be good." [Rusmore (B), p. 1.]

Once tests have been selected, what is the quality of test administration? Problems with lighting or interruption (particularly important on a speeded test) occurred in more than half of the companies surveyed, and only 4 out of 30 companies required any special training for the person administering the tests. [Rusmore (B), p. 6 & p. 22f.]

More critical, however, is the problem of validation of the tests. A test is valid to the extent to which it correlates with the phenomenon one is attempting to predict. This correlation depends both on what one is attempting to predict (the criterion) and the characteristics of the population for which the prediction is being made.*

Many problems can arise in measuring such a seemingly simple criterion as job performance, which is what most employment tests attempt to predict. For example, often supervisors' ratings are used as the measure of job performance; these are then correlated with test scores. However, two important sources of bias can exist here. First, supervisors often have access to test results and can be more favorably inclined to those who did well, perceive their work more favorably, or can help them more, seeing them as "men with potential." Second, nearly all supervisors come from white, middle-class culture and may be biased against the dress, habits, and attitudes of disadvantaged people, even when their work output is satisfactory. While the work output may be satisfactory, the supervisor is also likely to be influenced by his idea of proper method of doing the work, which may well be different from the method used by a person from a disadvantaged background. [Gordon (A), p. 13.] In many jobs, hard-to-scale variables as customer satisfaction and increased goodwill are the real criteria of successful performance, and these increase validation difficulties. Finally, an employee's success is not measured only by job performance but also by such factors as absenteeism, lateness, turnover, and facility in working with the other employees. Thus, getting a test score is easier than getting a dependable criterion score, and the validity of the correlation between them depends upon the validity of both scores.

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* A more precise definition is Allport's: For scientific statistical prediction of individual behavior, "the dimensions studied must be objectively defined, reliably measured, validly related to the target of prediction..., clearly normed for a population to which the subject belongs." [Allport, p. 244.]

Although most companies using tests realize the importance of scientific validation, the sophistication with which the term is applied varies markedly. In many cases the validity of the test is assumed because it was taken from a book of tests with stated validities, prepared by an expert, or bought from a testing firm. Or the test is deemed satisfactory because there are no complaints from the people in charge of the newly-selected workers. [Rusmore (A), p. 2.] The fact that a test with a textbook validity coefficient of +.50 may easily have an actual validity coefficient of +.20 or even +.0 when used to predict performance for a different job or for a group of applicants rather different in background from the normative sample does not seem to affect many of the testing practices. Rusmore, for example, found actual validity coefficients ranging from +.40 to -.10. [Rusmore (A), p. 6.] In a study of California testing practices, Rusmore found not only that "by and large, the tests are of unknown validity; that is, the people who are using them have no knowledge as to whether the scores on the tests have any relationship to later performance in training or on the job..." but also that most of his respondents did not know what technical processes would be involved in meeting the validity-fairness criterion. [Rusmore (A), p. 1; (B), p. 12.]

To meet the validity requirement that a test must be shown to be related to performance on a particular job in a particular company, a minority of progressive companies have done validation studies of tests within their own organizations. Surveys show only 7 to 20% of the companies using tests report local validation of their tests, while the great majority of employers report no local validation at all.* [Ash (B), p. 4; Rusmore (B), p. 10.]

While local validation studies can show that the tests discriminate between successful and unsuccessful workers for a specific job, there remains the problem of describing the population of which these observed workers were a sample. For example, a test might predict the success of door-to-door salesmen very well, but could the same test be assumed to be as valid for door-to-door saleswomen? Even if 4 out of the original 100 salesmen studied were women, can we assume that the test predicts exactly as well for them as it does for the men? Negroes form approximately 10% of the population and perhaps less of the employed labor force

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* For a sample of a local validation study, see Laney, A.R., Jr., "Scientific Hiring of Appliance Servicemen," American Gas Association Monthly, January, 1951, pp. 14-16.

(due to higher unemployment rates): how can companies who have validated their tests on their present white work force assume that the results apply equally as well to the Negro, whose cultural background is often notably different? A number of research studies show that validity coefficients of many tests *are* different for Negroes and whites. (See Lopez, Giovannini, Chambers, Fuerst, and Sections II-C and III-E of this paper.) Another drawback to many local validation studies is that only incumbent workers or applicants who *passed* the test were studied. In the first group, performance on the job may have influenced the ability to perform well on the test, and in either case there is no evidence that the test is a valid predictor for those applicants who failed the test, as they were never tested on job performance.

The final degree of sophistication in test validation occurs when differences among subgroups of applicants are seen as implying possible differences in validity coefficients. Since work in this area is relatively limited and recent, it will be discussed under suggested solutions to the problems of testing minority group members (Section III-E), rather than under current testing practices.

Tests are usually used to predict performance, either on the job or in training. Without considering the many problems associated with measuring such performance, what are the actual levels of validity coefficients at which various tests have been found to operate? Two writers suggest that the most common operating principle is that *any* positive correlation between test and job performance indicates selection procedures utilizing the test are better than those ignoring it. [Gordon (A), p. 20f.; Bayroff, p. 38.] Ghiselli has compiled statistics from many studies of validities of employment tests and finds that the average validity coefficient for studies in which test scores were correlated with job performance was +.19, while the coefficient was +.30 in studies where test scores were correlated with training performance. [Ghiselli (B), p. 4f.] Rusmore also states that test scores correlate more highly with training criteria than job performance criteria. [Rusmore (A), p. 4.] Whether this is a valid difference (due to the shorter time span and more controlled conditions during training), or whether training success tends to be measured by supervisors' ratings or tests similar to the original tests or other measures spuriously correlated with tests cannot be known. Also, Ghiselli found that the correlation between training validity coefficients and job proficiency coefficients for the same tests was only +.14. He states: "These results indicate that the relative importance of various abilities and traits in training for a job have at best only a small similarity to their relative importance in actual job performance." Thus, selection for trainability must use different tests from selection for job performance. [Ghiselli (B), p. 5.]

Gordon suggests that a defined level of validity should be a precondition for the ethical use of any test affecting the rights of the test-taker. He tentatively suggests +.70 as a coefficient reasonably protective of the applicant's rights. [Gordon (A), p. 21f.]

In actual practice, this would eliminate nearly all testing, as Ghiselli found only two tests with validity coefficients of more than +.30 for job performance. [Ghiselli (B), p. 8.]

I-D. Importance of Tests in the Selection Process

Although the use of tests may have increased, this does not necessarily mean that their importance in the selection process has increased commensurately. While Rusmore found that tests were usually interpreted in terms of strict cutting scores (the origin of these cutting scores was usually either unknown or a test manual), he also states that the personnel man who makes the final decision on hiring has no formula for the importance of the various units of the information. [Rusmore (A), p. 1; (B), p. 6f.] Thus, a failing test score need not necessarily eliminate an applicant. However, failing a test certainly would not help an applicant, and when the cutting score is set high to protect the company, many minority persons who may be capable of satisfactory job performance may not be seriously considered (especially if the interview is the decisive factor).

A different situation exists in the civil services, where a passing score on the test is usually a prerequisite for the interview, and there is a pronounced tendency to hire the applicant with the highest (or one of the three highest) scores(in the interests of objective selection). [Gordon (B), p. 17; "California State Personnel Board Ethnic Census (1965)," p. 1.]

In private companies, however, the interview appears to be where the hiring decision is made and where the importance of the test results for any given applicant is determined. Although the interview is used by nearly all companies (94%), there has been practically no scientific attempt to evaluate its validity as a selection procedure. [Except, see Lopez (A).] ["Survey of Hiring Procedures," p. 2; Rusmore (B), p. 7.] Although a thorough investigation into the background and personality factors of the minority applicant has been suggested as a way of offsetting testing disadvantages (see Section III-G), interviews, especially unstructured interviews, have long been a source of discrimination complaints, for middle-class or majority group values can easily influence perceptions in such a temporary, unstructured, face-to-face situation. Also, in most cases the interviewer has the test scores before him, and his judgment of the applicant's possibilities as an employee may well be influenced by this information. Thus, the importance of test scores probably is much higher than seems indicated by the proportion of companies who explicitly base rejection on test scores.

II. TYPES OF PROBLEMS MINORITY APPLICANTS HAVE WITH TESTS

Granting that tests can be an important factor in selection decisions, how does this fact affect minority group applicants?

II-A. Problems Stemming From the Applicant's Background

Many problems stem from the considerable difference in background factors distinguishing minority from majority group applicants. Several physical factors can hamper test performance -- e.g., brain damage, effects of previous ill-health, and present ill-health. Pasamanick and Knobloch have done several studies on the relationship of socio-economic status and race to the incidence of prematurity, pregnancy complications, and birth complications which contribute to brain damage. Their findings show that such problems occur much more frequently at the lower socio-economic levels, and even more frequently for Negroes than for whites on similar levels. [Pasamanick and Knobloch, p. 7; Knobloch and Pasamanick (A), p. 128.] This may be due to racial differences, but there are also indications that the "economic floor" for Negroes is lower, and that a "lower-class" Negro is in a worse plight than a lower-class white because of racial restrictions. [Pettigrew, p. 70.] These brain-damaged or premature children often must further contend with inadequate diet and housing and racial discrimination, which aggravates the effects of previous damage.

For the majority of Negroes, however, brain damage effects are not so relevant as inadequate diet and medical care, which not only impairs physical and neurological functioning, but decreases the energy available for educational and occupational achievement. [Burt, p. 9.] Some of the trainees in a program for the culturally deprived had been rejected by potential employers because they "looked lazy" and "lacked ambition." Fourteen out of the sixteen trainees proved to need medical attention, mainly because of effects of malnutrition. With better-planned meals, their "apparently disinterested [sic]" state disappeared. ["Can Today's 'Unemployables' Become Tomorrow's Salesmen?"]

An old and much-contested question involves the reasons for the well-documented discrepancies in Negro and white intelligence test score averages. While some researchers (Shuey, McGurk)* still feel that racial factors may be a major determinant of the differences, most researchers today feel that because much of the difference has been shown to be environment-influenced, it is reasonable to conclude that at least a good portion of the remaining differences may be explainable on environmental grounds. [Klineberg, Dreger & Miller, Campbell (B), Semler & Iscoe.] Lending support to this latter conclusion are studies which have found little difference between the performance of white and Negro infants [Dreger & Miller (A), p. 393; Klineberg, p. 200; Knobloch & Pasamanick, p. 132.], and studies which have found mounting differences in intelligence test scores with increasing age (as environmental effects presumably increase). [Dreger & Miller (B), p. 5; Kennedy and Lindner, pp. 43 & 48f; "Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 137.] Also several studies have shown that socioeconomic status and degree of urbanization are positively correlated with intelligence test scores. [Roberts (B), p. 295; Deutsch

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* See articles by Dreger & Miller, and Klineberg.

& Brown, p. 27; Kennedy & Lindner, p. 47; Dugan, p. 23.] Other studies show that intelligence test scores can be markedly improved by environmental improvements in urbanization, socio-economic status, educational opportunities, and other factors. [Dreger & Miller (A), p. 369f.; Kennedy, Van de Riet, & White, p. 15; Roberts (A), p. 70; Gordon (B), p. 8.]

Such socio-economic and rural-urban differences are shorthand ways of denoting many cultural differences in home and family experiences. Lack of experiences outside of the immediate neighborhood, lack of organized recreation, lack of interaction with adults, as well as sparsity of objects in the home, different and perhaps less varied verbal usage all affect the skills, knowledge, and attitudes which a disadvantaged applicant brings to the test situation. [Metfessel (B), p. 1; Keller, p. 826f.] One specific area which relates directly to the employment situation is the effect of lack of socialization in the ways of the working world: many disadvantaged families lack either a breadwinner or an employed breadwinner, while even those who are employed often do not provide encouraging work models for their children. Work is regarded as a necessary evil, diligence as unrewarded naivete, and practical knowledge of requirements, procedures, and tools in various occupations above the unskilled level is lacking. [Himes, p. 448f.]

Other problems in testing stem from the applicant's background in formal education: not only are attitudes and habits favorable to academic achievement often lacking in the child's home and neighborhood, but also the quality of education offered underprivileged children, particularly Negroes in the South, is below par. ["Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 132; Miller, p. 203f.] Verbal ability in particular is importantly related not only to I.Q. scores, but to ability to understand and perform well on other types of written tests. [Kennedy, Van de Riet, & White, p. 37; Rusmore (A), p. 3.] Finally, schools serving predominantly lower-class areas make less use of standardized tests. The children are also handicapped by lower academic standards and less use of abstract materials in these schools (such abstract materials as are used on spatial and reasoning tests). [Gordon (B), p. 9.] When standardized tests are used in such schools, comparison with national norms or subjective feelings of confusion or failure may encourage a negative attitude toward tests. That this real inferiority in achievement may be notably improved by changes in the educational environment is indicated by several studies. [Campbell (B), pp. 11f. & 15f.; Roberts (A), p. 69; Holland, p. 28.]

From such experiences with the informal influences of the neighborhood and the home, and the formal influences of education, many minority group members acquire attitudes and values which place them at a distinct disadvantage in the employment testing situation. In addition to different standards of personal grooming and conduct which would influence interviews rather than tests, disadvantaged applicants often have low motivation in testing situations, for repeated failures in their contacts with white middle-class culture have taught them to "play it cool" in order to preserve their self-respect. [Gordon (B), p. 8f.] Speed of test performance appears to be closely associated with the motivation of the test-taker. [Kennedy, Van de Riet, & White, p. 16.] Also, the attitude toward testing can have a definite effect on performance through increasing or decreasing anxiety. Although many informed persons feel that objective testing should be looked on favorably by minority groups because testing eliminates subjective bias [Brim, p. 127.], the actual feeling of most minority group members appears to be that tests are to be feared, difficult, and anxiety-provoking, and the (usually white) tester appears as the representative of a powerful, hostile environment. ["Fair Employment Practices," p. 16; Rusmore (A), p. 13; Mayfield, p. 12.] One personnel manager complained that the number of Negro applicants at his company fell by 80% after the recent establishment of a pre-employment testing program. [Wallace, p. 18.]

The burden of racial discrimination combines with an often unstable family background to produce personality problems for the lower-class Negro (and a majority of Negroes are lower-class). [Dreger & Miller (A), p. 383 & p. 387; Spock, p. 1.] Clark states that such pressures result in loss of self-esteem, the lowering of aspirations, hostile reactions, and rejection of the dominant culture for a subculture with distinctively different values. [Clark, p. 247.] Many observers support the conclusion that a negative self-image appears early and affects performance in many situations for Negroes. [Pettigrew, p. 7; Keller, p. 830; Ash (A), p. 798.] Hostility appears in many forms -- from a direct hostile reaction to the environment such as delinquency or projection of hostility onto the environment to the internalization of aggression, resulting in anxiety and interference with efficient performance. [Katz, Robinson, Epps, & Waly, p. 54f.; Dreger & Miller (A), p. 376 & p. 379.] Tendencies to perceive prejudice, rejection, and race-consciousness could interfere with realistic perception of interview and test situations, thus impairing performance. For example, many firms have had considerable trouble convincing Negro college graduates that they are seriously prepared to hire them in business on an equal basis. Simple information was not enough; active recruiting and assurance were necessary. [Business Week.]

II-B. Problems Stemming from the Testing Situation

Given such a background, how do the situational conditions of the test affect minority group applicants' performance? An important factor here is the examiner: his training, his attitude (as perceived by the applicant), and his race. Although training can affect his behavior, if the examiner is personally prejudiced against or contemptuous of disadvantaged persons, this may have a negative effect on their test performance. Even what the examiner may consider an "efficient" or "businesslike" attitude may be interpreted by insecure applicants as evidence of hostility. Since such "efficiency" usually implies speed, the applicant less familiar with the work environment may lack the time necessary to consider the test instructions or restrictions.

The race of the examiner has been shown to affect the performance of Negro test-takers in several studies: where tests are perceived as threatening (difficult but also relevant to one's self-image), anxiety seems to interfere with performance when the examiner is white. (This is especially true of applicants who may have had little contact with whites, except as distant, punitive authority figures.) [Katz, p. 381ff.; Dreger & Miller (B), p. 5f.] Since employment is an important part of a person's life, it seems reasonable to assume that a Negro applicant would find employment testing by a white examiner anxiety-provoking. Some research evidence shows that Negroes talk less when interviewed or tested orally by whites -- this could seriously affect their scores. [Gordon (B), p. 8.] Katz believes that such interfering anxiety is the result of the Negroes' conflict at being unable to express their hostility toward the white examiner. [Katz, Robinson, Epps, & Waly, p. 54f.] Although several articles urge the examiner to be supportive and fair to minority applicants, his race is not a variable he can control. The lack of Negro personnel workers and testers further aggravates this problem. [Rusmore (A), p. 13.]

The facilities available for testing can also be important in affecting test scores. Rusmore's finding that testing interruptions were common could mean more problems for the inexperienced test-taker, who might take longer to "get back on the track" of his thoughts. [Rusmore (B), p. 6.] The lack of sufficient privacy or work space could also be more detrimental to the minority applicant's performance because (1) he might lack the concentration gained from formal education, and (2) he might be closely surrounded by majority applicants, all of whom appear to him to be writing more quickly and definitely than he is. The tendency of Negroes to underrate their own performance when working with whites is documented by Katz' study. [Katz, p. 395.]

The last situational variable which can easily affect performance is the test itself. For the minority applicant whose experience with formal education and standardized tests has been more limited than that of the average applicant, even routine instructions can be puzzling. Certain skills gained in previous testing experience can be very useful: (1) understanding the way the test will be scored can encourage or discourage guessing; (2) knowledge of a variety of types of questions and methods for considering the different types can foster concentration on the content of the test rather than wasting time puzzling over the format; and (3) previous experience leads to easier understanding of instructions -- misunderstanding of these can considerably lower a test score. In addition, experienced test-takers are often assisted by hints in the test items themselves: shorter answers tend to be wrong, etc. ["Fair Employment Practices," p. 16.] Another problem closely tied to comprehension of the instructions and also encountered in the rest of the test is that of the limited vocabulary of the disadvantaged applicant, compounded by his fear of being thought inferior or stupid if he asks a question. Many test instructions employ vocabulary more suited to academia than to employment purposes.

Slow reading has a similarly adverse effect on performance. Thus, an applicant may be hired not simply because he has the requisite knowledge or ability, but because he possesses this and the ability to express or understand a rather formal form of written English. ["Fair Employment Practices," p. 16.] For jobs where vocabulary and written communication are important, such a procedure is useful, but most of the jobs for which minority applicants are applying do not demand great facility in these skills.

Employers prefer giving speeded tests for efficiency of administration. [Rusmore (B), p. 2.] However, the disadvantaged applicant not only tends to be less time-conscious in general than the usual clock-run middle-class person, but also has little experience in maximizing the utility of the testing time. For example, he may spend a considerable amount of time puzzling over a few items, rather than first doing all the questions which are easy for him. Speed in responding can also be negatively affected by poor health or "playing it cool."

Finally, the description of the test and how the scores will be used have a definite effect on performance, particularly where the tester is white. If the test is described as measuring an ability area in which the minority applicant feels anxious or inferior (such as intelligence), then emotional responses are likely to interfere with efficient thinking. [Katz, p. 395; Katz, Robinson, Epps, & Waly, p. 57.] Also the knowledge of how important the test is in the selection process, how strictly the scores are used, and with what norms the scores will be compared can affect performance by affecting emotional responses and motivation. [Katz, p. 395.]

II-C. Problems Stemming from the Background of the Tests

What factors in the background of the test itself can cause bias in employment selection?

First, the use of a test with given norms and scores assumes that the group on which the test was standardized represents the same population as the group to which it will be given. This assumption does not hold for minority group members because tests are standardized on such groups as students and incumbent workers among whom minority group members are underrepresented. Even if minority group representation in the standardization group were equal to its proportion in the total population, there would be no guarantee that the validity levels of the test for the whole standardization group would be the same as the levels for the minority subgroup. In fact, there are strong indications that where cultural differences exist scores and norms can be expected to be _different_ for different subcultural groups. [Kennedy, Van de Riet, & White, p. 17.] In view of known differences between Negro and white cultures,* it would seem foolish to predict that tests standardized on predominantly white middle-class groups would be equally good predictors for both Negro and white groups. Krug says that it is unethical to use a selection device unless it has been validated in a similar situation with a similar sample. [Krug, p. 9.] This would seem to preclude the use of tests on many minority group members, for Giovannini, writing in 1964, was unable to find one study in the literature on the possible effects of cultural bias in selection instruments.

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* These differences are not only perpetuated by the effects of past Negro history and culture, but by the effects of the present environment: Negroes _must_ act differently from whites in order to survive, adjust, and progress in this country. [Kennedy, Van de Riet, & White, p. 20.]

The validity coefficient of a standardized test, as given in the manual, is based on prediction for the group on which the test was standardized. However, the composition of the group of applicants is continually changing and old coefficients of validity should therefore not be utilized indefinitely. There are several reasons why tests may be expected to predict less effectively for disadvantaged applicants. First, a test assumes that a person has been exposed to various cultural influences and experiences, and that what he has retained reflects his ability to learn or to perform in various ways. This assumption does not hold for most disadvantaged applicants; to quote Rusmore: "... if a person has had all the opportunities and flubs everything, that tells you something, ... [but] if he hasn't had the opportunities and he flunks something, well, maybe there's something yet to be found out." [Rusmore (A), p. 10.] Other factors which may lower predictive validity for disadvantaged applicants are their greater motivation to succeed on the job because of past employment problems and the very fact that acquiring the job may give them their first exposure to the type of work environment in which experience is often assumed by the method of test construction.

Where tests are more directly related to job performance, such interference of irrelevant cultural factors is lessened, but the possibilities of differential speed of improvement once on the job must be considered. For example, if a man who has never used a punching machine can punch 50 holes a minut on a test, while a man who has used one for several weeks on a previous job can punch 75 holes a minute on the test, who is more likely to be the faster operator eventually?

Certainly, some cultural deprivations which impair test performance also impair job performance, but is it best to discover which these are by random impressions, or by systematic empirical testing? Some interesting and surprising results have been obtained by investigators studying just how valid certain tests are in predicting job performance for Negroes and whites, studied separately.

One company found that while its test predictions of job performance were 90% accurate for whites, the predictions were only 35% accurate when used for Negro applicants. [Fuerst.] In two separate studies, Lopez found that written mental ability tests did not predict as well for Negroes as for whites, at a statistically significant level of difference. [Lopez (B), p. 6 & p. 9.] A Texas oil firm found that an academically-oriented test excluded disadvantaged applicants who could perform satisfactorily on the job. [Kuehl, p. 32.] And a careful training program for disadvantaged minority youths showed the lack of predictive validity of usual selection tests for this group in a program in Detroit. [Chambers, p. 21.] In this case, the youths could not even pass the tests after several weeks of successful job performance.

Similarly, several reports from the educational sphere indicate that tests are less valid predictors for disadvantaged youths there, too. [Holland, p. 29; Wallace, p. 14f.; "Harvard's Successful Gamble," p. 28; "Disadvantaged Pupils at College Prove Standard Test Unreliable."]

Because of such considerable differences in predictive validity for minority and disadvantaged applicants, it has been suggested that validities for minority groups be explicitly stated in the test manuals; and that if such separate validities have not been ascertained, that fact should also be stated. ["Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 143.]

In addition to validity problems, there are also questions about the reliability of test scores of disadvantaged applicants. A reliable test would be one which would discriminate between various applicants and which would yield similar scores for applicants of equal ability (or for the same applicant taking it twice). In general, test reliability coefficients are based on the assumption that a wide range exists in the distribution of individual scores. Disadvantaged groups usually have a narrower range of scores than the groups on which the test was standardized; thus their scores may be expected to be less reliable. [Culhane.]

Other forms of skewed distributions of the scores may occur in minority groups, indicating the necessity for re-establishing reliability for the particular group involved, and for developing new norms for use in interpretation of the test scores. ["Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 133f.]

II-D. Examples of Problems with Specific Types of Tests

Different types of tests offer different types of problems in testing minority group members. In this section I will discuss problems with performance, situation, and perceptual tests, which are usually less dependent upon verbal skills; and problems with work knowledge, achievement, personality, aptitude, and intelligence tests, which are usually written tests.

Performance tests are generally favored over more general, written tests by minority group members, and there is evidence that they do better on such practical tests. [Meister; "California State Personnel Board Ethnic Census (1965)," p. 9.] Where the test is short and contains only one or two trials, however, anxiety aroused by the situation or by the tester may impair performance. Also, many minority applicants lack the past experience with machines or other tools which may give other applicants an advantage during the testing period not commensurate with differences in later job performance.

A test similar to the performance test is the "situation test" in which an applicant is put into a "work situation" and given a realistic problem to solve. This would be fair if the problem could be constructed to be equally novel to all applicants -- a difficult goal to attain.

Perceptual tests would be fair if they involved actual direct measurement of perception. However, many of these utilize words or symbols which are actually more familiar to and more easily discriminated among by people with a conventional educational background.

The rest of the tests tend to be written, and this characteristic alone raises the minority failure rate substantially. ["California State Personnel Board Ethnic Census (1965)," p. 1, pp. 9-11; Wallace, p. 4.]

Work knowledge tests may save some company time by eliminating the necessity for teaching names of tools, etc. However, work knowledge test scores do not necessarily correspond to interest in the work or even to knowledge of actual job procedures, for the vocabulary used in various subcultures often differs from standard vocabulary even in the field of tools. Two studies have indicated the decreased validity of these tests for disadvantaged applicants. [Lopez (B); and Gordon (B), p. 9f.] Even where the applicant lacks knowledge of tool names and uses, his job performance will not necessarily be inferior after the vocabulary limitations stemming from his deprived background are overcome. [Himes, p. 449.]

Achievement tests can be fair for all groups provided the tests cover the requisite knowledge areas representatively and thoroughly. However, it is important to remember that achievement reflects not only motivation and ability but opportunity, and educational opportunities, particularly in the South and in rural areas, are much below national standards, especially for minority group members. [Miller, p. 203f.] Also verbal ability tests actually measure developed verbal ability. Thus, a verbal ability test may be a fair measure of the ability to learn for an individual who has had widespread exposure to books and good schooling, but it is not valid for an individual who has not had such opportunities to acquire verbal ability. [Campbell (A), p. 60f.] Using these tests as measures of learning ability for minority group persons means assuming that they would have their present verbal ability even if their past education had been of excellent quality.

Personality and preference tests present several difficulties when used across subcultures. ["Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 140.] Cultural exposure is essential for developing varied interests, and this varies markedly with social status. Art and golf, for example, are not only expensive hobbies but a knowledge of them is more readily acquired in middle-class than in lower-class society. In personality tests, perceptions of violence or hostility may be reflections of emotional disturbance in a middle-class person, but may merely be accurate reflections of his environment in a lower-class minority applicant. Finally, there is much questioning of the validity of personality tests even for white, middle-class applicants, on which such tests were standardized. [Ricklefs, p. 2; Gordon (A), p. 6.]

Difficulties in passing intelligence and aptitude tests can have sever repercussions, for written intelligence and aptitude tests are the most widely used tests, included by more than half the companies using tests. ["Survey of Hiring Procedures," p. 4; Rusmore (B), p. 5 & pp. 38-40.] Many other aptitude and achievement measures are highly correlated with such general intelligence tests, indicating that some of the same skills affect performance on all of these types of tests. It is interesting to note that the validity of such intellectual, written tests is much higher for predicting training success than job performance -- in fact, for jobs below the supervisory level the predictive validity for job performance is very low. [Ghiselli (B), p. 3ff.]

Lack of verbal facility in standard English, as well as many other background deprivations, easily affect performance on written tests -- this is particularly dangerous with intelligence and aptitude tests, for these are often assumed to be measuring purely mental abilities, or capacity for learning. The effect of developed language ability on I.Q. scores has been well-documented. [Kennedy, Van de Riet, & White, p. 37; Kennedy & Lindner, p. 57.] Gourlay quotes a 1964 study of selection procedures which showed none of the companies indicating use of "culture-free" or non-language intelligence tests. [Gourlay, p. 67.] Of course, if developed verbal facility is important for job performance, such tests would be very useful; but when they are assumed to predict other mental abilities or potential, the tests tend to have less validity for the disadvantaged applicant.

Findings that anxiety or suppressed hostility and aggression (probably greater in minority group applicants) have adverse effects on intellectual performance give indirect evidence that minority group applicants may be at a definite disadvantage in the employment intelligence testing situation. [Goslin, p. 143f.; Katz, p. 381f.; Katz, Robinson, Epps, & Waly, p. 54f.] More direct evidence of the lessened predictive validity of intelligence tests (both language and non-language types) for Negroes comes from studies by Lopez and Giovannini, who found that significant differences between Negroes and whites on intelligence test scores were not reflected in differential success on the job or in performance test results. [Lopez (B), pp. 6-9; Giovannini, p. 8.]

Another objection to conventional intelligence tests is that a single measure of intellectual ability does not discriminate between the different types of mental abilities which may be possessed to differing degrees by groups varying in culture.* [Giovannini, p. 10; Dreger & Miller (B), p. 3f.] Concrete support for this hypothesis comes from two studies which found differences in mental performance among various ethnic groups measured on a variety of factors. [Kennedy, Van de Riet, & White, p. 27f.; Dreger & Miller (B), p. 4.] Also, the types of mental ability emphasized in the usual intelligence test are those predominating in white, middle-class culture (where the tests were standardized and the norms established).

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* Mr. Dunn, head of Australian testing, says "In my opinion quality of thinking cannot be divorced from familiarity with the content area in which the thinking takes place." [Lambert, p. 326.]

Learning ability in new situations was compared with I.Q. for Negro and white school children by Semler and Iscoe. The results not only supported the hypothesis that there were no overall racial differences in learning ability, but also indicated that I.Q. was only a limited predictor of the ability to assimilate new learning. [Semler & Iscoe, p. 42f.] Similarly, Jensen found that "low-I.Q." minority group children did better than "low-I.Q." majority group children on learning tests. [Lambert, p. 324.]

Finally, the feasibility of measuring the potential or aptitude of applicants from diverse backgrounds with the same test has been seriously questioned. ["Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 138; Gordon (B), p. 8.] These tests attempt to predict how much the applicant will be able to absorb from his future environment by measuring what he has absorbed from his past environment. This is not a fair measure of capacity for absorption unless past environments can be assumed to be equivalent -- a patent absurdity when a white middle-class applicant is compared to a Negro lower-class applicant. However, if these tests are actually used to measure the development of verbal and reasoning skills necessary to a job, the results could be very valid predictors of job success.

Empirical support for these objections comes from studies showing changes in individuals' scores on tests purporting to assess basic innate potential. Such changes appear to be correlated with environmental improvements. [Gordon (B), p. 8; Campbell (A), p. 61f.;

Krug (B), p. 89.]

III. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS TO THE MINORITY TESTING PROBLEM

Many suggestions to alleviate the problems involved in testing minority and disadvantaged applicants have been made. In this section I will try to cover those which have been prominent in the relevant literature.

III-A. Elimination of Testing

While the elimination of testing has not been seriously considered by many experts in the field, it has been proposed because of the serious problems involved in proving and maintaining test validity in so many different situations and for so many different groups. However, selection among various applicants will still have to be made, and removing tests would leave such procedures as the interview and application blank, the validities of which are even less studied than that of most tests. Such procedures are also open to charges of discrimination because the information involved would tend to be more clinical than objective, and would be subjectively evaluated. Further, the validity of certain tests for certain groups of applicants has been convincingly demonstrated; it would be a waste to completely ignore this useful selection tool.

III-B. Elimination of the Cultural Biases in Tests

Another suggestion is to eliminate the cultural biases in testing (i.e., to eliminate those cultural factors which are irrelevant to prediction of the criterion variable). One variation of this suggestion involves the "culture-free" test, in which the cultural background of the test-taker would have no effect on his score. Practically speaking, this is impossible because every test involves some type of communication between examiner and examinee, and communication is certainly affected by differences in cultural background. Lambert quotes Dyer as stating that any ability test (including intelligence tests) is made up of a series of pieces of the environment to which the test-taker is expected to react in one way or another, and it is therefore impossible to sample a common denominator of all cultures. [Lambert, p. 322.]

The "culture-fair" or "culture-common" test appears to have more practical possibilities, for it would utilize only those test items equal in familiarity to members of two or more cultures. [Krug, p. 7.] However, even though the familiarity might be equal, would the item necessarily have the same meaning to members of different subcultures? A practical problem involves finding test items which are not only equal in familiarity to members of different cultures or subcultures, but are also valid predictive items in relation to job performance for all applicants.

A third variation is the "culture-equivalent" test, in which different test items are used for different cultural groups, but the relationship between the test scores and the criterion one is attempting to predict is the same for all groups. For example, a woman who knows the principle of leverage as it applies to housework might be as able to perform a job requiring knowledge of the principle as a man who knows the principle in relation to car repairs. However, if the question were phrased the same for both of these applicants, one might miss the answer.

Finally, although they are certainly not devoid of cultural content, performance and situation tests may be classified as culturally fair to the extent that they actually exclude cultural bias which is irrelevant to job performance. (Discrimination problems with performance and situation tests is discussed in Section II-D.)

Almost all of the research in the culture-fair testing field has concentrated upon the development of general intelligence tests supposedly unaffected by verbal ability, socio-economic status, and other cultural background factors. Although several of the tests have yielded higher scores for students in the lower socio-economic or reading skill levels, definite positive correlations with improvement in such cultural factors still remain. [Lambert, p. 318ff.; Dreger & Miller (A), p. 366f.] Also, the non-verbal tests do not predict scholastic achievement as well as the traditional mental ability tests. [Lambert, p. 319.] Even more relevant to employment testing is Lopez' finding that while four out of five non-verbal aptitude tests (closely related to intelligence tests) predicted the success of white laborers on performance tests, only one predicted the success of Negro laborers on the performance tests, and the correlation was only +.33. [Lopez (B), p. 9.] Even equating socio-economic differences between Negroes and whites does not eliminate racial differences in test performance, because being a Negro in America does not merely imply a class difference, but a caste difference; even at a given socio-economic level, the cultural world of the Negro is correspondingly more restricted than that of the white. [Dreger & Miller (A), p. 367.]

Given that the cultures differ so much, is the "cultural-equivalent" solution of equally valid but different tests for different groups the answer? In addition to possible legal difficulties entailed in using different selection procedures for racial or cultural groups, there remain the practical problems of: (1) how will the fact that a group is sufficiently different to deserve a different test be determined? (2) who will finance the research necessary to provide different sets of tests for different groups for each type of job? (3) how many professional testers are sufficiently acquainted with various aspects of minority group or lower-class culture to devise relevant and valid tests of items familiar to these cultures, but similar in function to items used on tests for majority group members?

Irving Lorge, as quoted in Lambert, points out that efforts for the development of culture-free tests (or culture-fair tests) are motivated by the desire to show that no real differences exist between groups -- in other words, the tests are judged successful if, through the manipulation of test items, equal average scores for all groups can be established. However, this equality is a test artifact, and statistically eliminates real differences between groups,* thus limiting the useful information which can be received about differences in performance among various groups.

In summary, there seems to be agreement among surveyors of the field that at this time the culture-fair testing movement has not been able to support its theoretically possible contentions with examples of actual tests fulfilling their claims. [Campbell (A), p. 58; Dreger & Miller (A), p. 368; Lambert, p. 322.]

III-C. Improvement of the Testing Situation

Some recommendations concentrate upon improving the testing situation, although this is usually not considered a total solution. Provision of an interruption-free, well-lighted examination room with adequate working space and a trained test administrator can alleviate some obvious reliability problems. However, as shown by the available research (see Section II-B), even a friendly white administrator can arouse interfering anxiety in minority applicants, so perhaps the only real solution is to use minority test administrators.

Other suggestions have recommended pre-test coaching of varying duration, or warm-up tests. While the effects of coaching on test scores are not clearcut in the literature [Guion, p. 34f.; Roberts & Oppenheim, p. 9.], it seems that some type of warm-up would at least ensure understanding of the instructions and avoid more flagrant misinterpretations of the testing procedure. Also, if the applicant is advised he will be able to repeat the test if he wants to, his fear in the testing situation, as well as his perception of discrimination or hostility, should be diminished.

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* This elimination is an "artifact" because it is reached by adding and subtracting various test items until there are enough understandable by each group to yield the same mean score for each group.

Finally, an explanation of his scores and how he can improve his future performance on tests can help the minority applicant to see the test situation as less inexplicable and threatening, as well as provide him with useful information about himself.

III-D. Addition of Points to Minority Applicants' Scores

The possibility of adding points to the score of a disadvantaged applicant has been suggested. The number of points to be added would be determined by an investigation of the applicant's background to find the degree of his deprivation. [Gordon (B), p.21.] While this may be justified on the basis of social concern, it could involve discrimination against more fortunate applicants and be seen by companies as lowering their hiring standards. Thus it is unlikely to occur on a large scale. [Gourlay, p. 64.] Also, Lopez points out that adding points to minority applicants' scores tends to perpetuate the idea that such applicants are inferior. [Lopez (B), p. 3.] Merely encouraging acceptance of applicants with scores below the present cut-off point also implies basic acceptance of the present testing procedures, which usually leave much to be desired. [Rusmore (A), p. 16.] Finally, arbitrarily changing scores would not necessarily make the test a better predictor of job performance for minority applicants, and such prediction is the basic reason for using tests at all.

III-E. Improvement of Test Validity

The most widely-supported general suggestion for the improvement of the current testing situation involves improving the validity (predictive value) of the tests, although several approaches differing in emphasis have been suggested. The advantages of this general approach are to preserve the previous improvements in selection made under objective testing and to provide an objective alternative and supplement to more subjective selection procedures, such as the interview.

The least demanding of these suggestions involves careful local validation of professionally-selected tests within a given company setting, utilizing present employees. [Ketcham (A), p. 2ff.] However, this approach does not allow for different test score-job performance relationships for minority groups which are not studied separately; nor does it study the relationship between test score and job performance for applicants who were not hired. Also, on-the-job performance may well affect test scores for the worker who has been working for some time. Finally, setting cut-off scores so high that only the applicant who has already developed superior abilities is selected is not the equivalent of improving test validity and defeats the purpose of maximizing selection efficiency by unrealistically inflating the costs of recruiting and processing a large number of applicants.

A second approach to improving validity utilizes the research-documented fact that tests differ in validity depending upon the groups on which they are used. Ghiselli has done several studies showing how a "predictability test" can be used to determine which tests will be the best predictors for a given individual. [Ghiselli (A), p. 675ff.] This is analogous to the doctor asking the age of a child before he recommends use of an oral vs. rectal thermometer.

A similar suggestion involves the use of a "moderator variable" to distinguish between groups of applicants who could be expected to show different validity coefficients because of differences in background. Variables which have been suggested as relevant discriminators are: race, cultural exposure (deprivation as measured by material things and attitudes with which the person is familiar), and personal history. [Lockwood (B), p. 4; Guion, p. 30ff.] Also, the difference between an applicant's scores on a culture-fair test and a conventional test might be used as a measure of cultural deprivation. [Guion, p. 33.]

The logical outgrowth of assuming that different cultural subgroups have different validity coefficients on various tests is the suggestion that different tests, or at least different weighting of various scores be used with the differing subgroups. This approach is not the same as merely adding points to the scores of disadvantaged applicants; instead, it involves finding which scores and combinations of tests best predict job performance for a given group by studying these relationships through research. For example, if whites scoring below 60 on a given test tend to be below average in work performance, and if Negroes scoring 50 or above on the same test tend to be above average in work performance, then the cut-off point should be 60 for whites and 50 for Negroes. This appears to be a "double standard" so far as test scores are concerned; however, it results in the same standard of job performance for all workers, which any personnel man could endorse as fair practice.

Similarly, if a written test is shown to predict well for white workers, while a non-verbal test predicts better for Negroes, the fairest and most efficient selection program would use the more relevant test for each group.

The basic question is: what does equal opportunity for employment mean? Does it mean treating all applicants exactly the same way on the surface, or does it mean assuring each worker of a given potential level of job performance equal consideration with other workers of the same potential? If it means the latter, then use of different cut-off scores, different score weighting, or even different tests would be "fair" if study showed such precedures selected workers of similar potential from the different subgroups of applicants.

Support for this solution, or some variation of it, comes from many of the experts in the field, such as Krug (p. 4ff.); Rusmore (B), (p. 8f.); Lopez (B), (p. 3); Lambert (p. 329); and Giovannini (p. 10). Qualified support is given by Campbell (A), (p. 63), and

Guion (p. 32), who limit their support for different norms for different subgroups of applicants to those tests which are indirectly valid, in which test performance does not directly predict job performance. However, if validity were the same for all subgroups on a given test, then this approach would not have to be used; if validities were different, then test performance would not be directly valid for all the groups.

To support such a complicated solution on a merely theoretical basis would be practical nonsense. However, there are an increasing number of research studies, all quite recent, which support the conclusion that test validities found for disadvantaged or minority applicants differ significantly from those for majority applicants.

Fuerst found that in one company a testing program which proved 90% accurate in predicting job performance for whites was only 35% accurate for Negroes. [Fuerst.] Kuehl cites the experience of a Texas firm which failed 12 Negroes on its regular tests, then hired 10 of the 12 on the basis of scores on a new set of tests. All of those hired were reported to be working satisfactorily. [Kuehl, p. 32.] Federal Department Stores of Detroit found that the usual tests underpredicted performance for 14 out of 16 sales trainees drawn from a group of disadvantaged youths. These discrepancies between prediction and performance were quite large in 12 of the cases. ["Can Today's Unemployables Become Tomorrow's Salesmen?" Chambers, p. 20f.] Lopez has done two studies, both indicating that ability or intelligence tests are much more valid predictors for whites than for Negroes, even where non-verbal ability measures are used. He also discusses the differing validities for Negroes and whites he discovered in other parts of the selection process [Lopez (A), p. 16f.; (B), p. 9.] Lopez' findings are supported and extended by Giovannini, who did further work on Lopez' original data. [Giovannini.] Gordon cites an army episode in which the aptitude test for auto repair work predicted failure for a group of soldiers from a culturally deprived background, but who "performed excellently" in this capacity when pressed into service during a labor shortage. [Gordon (B), p. 9f.] Lambert, Holland, and two newspaper reports provide similar evidence from the area of education. [Lambert, p. 324; Holland, p. 29; "Disadvantaged Pupils at College Prove Standard Test Unreliable;" "Harvard's Successful Gamble," p. 28.]

If this approach is so widely supported by the experts, why isn't it the solution to the minority testing problem? The objections to this approach are two: legal and practical. In the first case, will use of different norms or tests for different subgroups be classified as discriminatory practice even if the results are not discriminatory? A special problem exists here for the civil services, which are often required by law to give the same treatment to every applicant, and which may not be able to ask questions concerning background to identify various underprivileged applicants. Secondly, there are two main practical problems: what criteria will be used to define a subgroup as differing sufficiently to require different tests or norms, and where will the financial and personnel resources needed for all the research involved in the separate validation studies for different groups come from?

As an example of the first practical problem, is it fair to have a separate test for Negroes and yet no special test for Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, or hillbillies? Secondly, since the duties of jobs vary among companies, even if the positions may have similar titles, must each company validate separate sets of tests or norms within its own job set-up for various subgroups of applicants who might apply? A related problem involves finding sufficient numbers of minority applicants for various jobs to allow for statistically reliable validation. Rusmore suggests that the best place for such research would be in the military and public sectors of employment, for here the large numbers of employees and government financial backing could fulfill two of the research requirements. [Rusmore (B), p. 25.] However, the practical problems of transferring these results to private employers and of civil service restrictions on procedures remain. Sharing of results of local validation studies among companies could also help, but unfortunately competition often leads to secrecy rather than openness on selection procedures. [Goslin, p. 100.]

In view of research results, there are certain measures which can be taken even now. For example, the bias evident in written general ability and intelligence tests could be eliminated by substituting performance and situation tests more directly related to job requirements especially for jobs below the managerial level. Also, when evidence of a deprived background occurs in an interview or application blank, the validity of the test scores, especially the use of a strict cut-off score, might be questioned. (See Section III-G.)

III-F. Training of Minority Group Members

Training has been suggested as a practical method of improving the skills and work background of minority group members. This would improve their scores on performance and work knowledge tests as well as provide them with some work experience which is more difficult for such applicants to acquire on the open market.

Some private companies have tried this approach successfully, employing as trainees those disadvantaged applicants who performed below the usual standards on tests to work at lower pay rates until their performance reached the usual level. One company tried using a longer training period for applicants with lower than average test scores and found no difference in job performance from a regularly selected group of applicants after a year on the job. [Rusmore (A), p. 14.] Federal Department Stores' sales-clerk training program for disadvantaged youth was similarly successful in regard to job performance, although even after performing successfully on the job, the trainees could not pass the original selection tests. (See Chambers' article.) There are two advantages of having private employers undertake such training programs: (1) the trainees are assured of being trained in skills for which there is a demand, and (2) their training performance may enable them to bypass the testing portion of selection which might screen them out in spite of good job potential.

Many private employers, however, lack facilities and funds for such programs and will not provide them unless they are pressed by a labor shortage. Thus government programs, such as those under the Manpower Development and Training Act, must be used to provide disadvantaged workers with relevant skills. This approach certainly is not a total solution to the testing problem, for it has been demonstrated repeatedly that possession of the relevant job skills is no guarantee that the disadvantaged applicant will pass the selection tests, at least until validity becomes considerably improved.

III-G. Supplementing the Test Results

Another approach, aimed at alleviating the negative bias many tests contain for the disadvantaged, recommends supplementing test scores with a more intensive survey of the applicant's background, experience, and motivation. Many experts feel that at this stage in test validity research and pending development of more suitable and accurate tests, it is only through such additional information and flexibility in test score interpretation that fair consideration may be provided to disadvantaged applicants. [Lopez (B), p. 9f.; Giovannini, p. 9f.; "Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 143; "Fair Employment Practices," p. 10.]

The extent of flexibility necessary in interpreting the test scores would be determined by discovering how deprived the applicant was, through a biographical data sheet, detailed application blank, or interview.

Several types of information appear to be useful in assessing the potential of such applicants. Work-related experience (such as home or auto repair), hobbies, and past employment record (allowing for the special problems of minority groups) may shed light on work experiences and skills. On a more personal level, family stability and degree of common sense may be important indicators of the applicant's ability to adjust. [Fuerst.] Perhaps the most important factor involved in this assessment is the motivation of the applicant to succeed in the job, and this is almost impossible to measure through tests. [Laney, p. 15.] The great importance of this factor is attested to by articles citing the unexpectedly high level of achievement attained by previously deprived persons who acquire satisfactory employment. [Fuerst; Ash (A), p. 798; Ash (B), p. 12.] There is little information on how motivation can best be measured, however. The problems of interpreting degree of motivation in an interview situation with a person from a different subculture are severe, even with the best-intentioned interviewers. [Gordon (B), p. 8.] Krug suggests the use of relative achievement indicators to show the past achievement motivation of the applicant. For example, leadership positions and social affiliations would be indications of such motivation, but would have to be judged by standards of which activities and positions had been available to the given applicant in his previous environment. [Krug (B), p. 78f. & p. 83.] This would necessitate a good knowledge of the various subcultures on the part of the interviewer. The importance of flexibility in making a reasonable assessment of the potential of applicants of varying backgrounds has been stressed by several authors. [Culhane; Gourlay, p. 63; Fuerst; "Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," p. 135f.]

The interview has been recommended as a flexible selection procedure which enables the personnel worker to bring together all the available data and consider the applicant in full perspective. Statistics in studies by Lopez and the California Civil Service show that interviews result in more selection or more valid selection of Negroes. [Lopez (A), p. 16f.; "California State Personnel Board Ethnic Census" (1964) Summary.] Also, in two educational experiments on college admissions, interviews were cited as a necessary supplement to test scores which grossly underpredicted academic performance of the underprivileged. ["Harvard's Successful Gamble," p. 28; "Disadvantaged Pupils at College Prove Standard Test Unreliable."]

There are three basic objections to placing heavy reliance on the interview as a selection procedure: (1) discrimination possibilities; (2) the problem of weighting the various bits of information; and (3) the lack of proved validity for the interview. The first objection could be minimized by having recognized recourse to higher-level officials for each applicant, by centering responsibility for the decision on one responsible, trained person [Rusmore (B), p. 7.], and by standardizing the questions to be asked and requiring the interviewer to record the answers. The problem of weighting the various types of information is particularly open to bias; arbitrary selection of weights at this point would rob the interview of its main advantage -- flexibility. The final problem of validating the interview would also be difficult without having a standardized weighting procedure to be followed by the interviewer. Although the latter approach offers hope in its adaptability to many subgroups, a great deal of research must be done to assure the validity and objectivity of interviews. [Rusmore (B), p. 10.]

Some background information may provide a negative bias in minority application selection. Such objective information as credit status, police record, and formal education record (used increasingly by companies as selection criteria ["Survey of Hiring Procedures," p. 2f.]) must often be interpreted in the light of other knowledge about the applicant. A bad credit record, for example, could be due to the difficulties of a minority group member in keeping employment. There is evidence that school performance in many subject areas is a poor predictor of job performance even in related subject areas. [Gordon (B), p. 6.] Also, school grades reflect attitudes toward school which may differ significantly from present attitudes toward work.

IV. PROBLEMS SPECIAL TO THE CIVIL SERVICES

Most of the material in the preceding sections has emphasized the problems and practices of private employers. However, certain problems are specific to public employment.

The civil services (including federal, state, and local public employment) are generally regulated by law in their employment practices. The use of objective tests is usually required, and often only the top scorer or the two or three top scorers are considered for the job. This may be required by law or may only be considered the most effective way to avoid charges of bias in selection. Legislation frequently forbids the use of different tests or different standards for different groups of applicants; even identification of the applicant as a member of a minority group is often explicitly forbidden. While such laws were formulated to prevent prejudiced selection, such regulations may actually prevent a fairer, more flexible approach to selection in view of the difficulties many minority applicants have with objective tests.

Its responsibility to the public imposes other restrictions on the civil service -- both in employment and financial areas. As part of the government, the civil services must show not only ready compliance with civil rights legislation, but in a wider sense must accept responsibility for acting in accordance with public welfare. With large numbers of majority and minority employees, a well-established and recorded testing program, the financial resources of the government, and a definite obligation to avoid bias in selection, the federal civil service is in an excellent position to do research on the validity of various testing and selection procedures, provided that the regulations can be made flexible enough for the research. Unless the regulations are changed, however, such research will be restricted to a search for a "culture-fair" test, which so far has seemed less promising (see Sections III-B & III-E) than using different procedures for different subcultural groups. This second possibility is not legally open to the federal civil service, however, for it would involve treating applicants differently. (See Current Research Appendix.)

As well as attempting to employ people as fairly as possible, the civil services are interested in getting the best work return from wages and salaries. Gordon questions whether limiting employment to the top test scorers is actually as efficient as it appears -- many capable workers are excluded (especially the disadvantaged, who tend to make lower test scores), recruitment costs increase, and welfare and unemployment costs in this generation and the next remain high. [Gordon (B), p. 17.] Gordon asks whether this overemphasis on efficiency is in accord with the ultimate governmental goals of a socially stable, low-unemployment economy.

Government-supported training programs have also been recommended as a means of improving the employability of the disadvantaged. Problems of selection for the various training programs are discussed in the article by Dvorak, et. al. [Dvorak, et. al., p. 136ff.], and non-verbal tests are being experimentally used in this connection. The correlation of such tests with subsequent job performance remains to be proved.

With the existing legislative bans on differential selection procedures, some form of performance test (non-written for jobs not requiring verbal ability) seems to be the objective test containing the least bias when given to applicants from varied backgrounds. California is working on the development of such tests, and the current research being undertaken by the Federal Civil Service jointly with the (Princeton, New Jersey) Educational Testing Service may lead to similar results. ["California State Personnel Board Ethnic Census (1965)," p. 11f.; see also Current Research Appendix.]

It would seem sensible for the civil services to attempt to validate their present tests and to utilize as much supplementary material as possible with unvalidated tests. Qualifications should be tailored to the job rather than raised as high as possible, even though this may increase turnover in personnel. If too many applicants can then qualify for a given opening, Gordon suggests that selection among them be made on the basis of chance. [Gordon (B), p. 21f.]

Gordon also suggests that points be awarded to civil service applicants according to their degree of cultural deprivation (similar to the program for veterans), so that their scores become more comparable to those of other applicants. [Gordon (B), p. 21.] This does not ensure merit selection unless the differential norms are first validated by job performance, however, and such a solution would also require legislation.

V. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The most important conclusion from this research is that objective tests are likely to discriminate against minority group applicants even though they might be able to perform satisfactorily in the jobs for which they are applying. This conclusion is even more important when one considers the widespread and increasing use of objective tests in employment selection, and the growing difficulties encountered by the disadvantaged or unskilled worker in obtaining employment. The lack of validation of such tests becomes even more shocking when the almost complete absence of local validation and validation on minority group workers is considered.

In view of this serious problem, what solutions are most reasonable? Until research provides a more scientific answer, several immediate steps can be taken as parts of an interim solution:

1. The use of only those tests which directly relate to specific job performance; elimination of general intelligence and verbal tests for jobs which do not require verbal facility; the use of precise, specific job requirements in the selection of tests for each specific job.

2. Improvement of the testing situation:
    a. trained and friendly examiners, preferably from the applicant's minority group.
    b. thorough explanation of the test instructions, scoring, use of test scores, and timing.
    c. practice tests given under actual test conditions, explained before the test and afterwards, with questions encouraged.
    d. adequate work space, lighting, and freedom from interruptions.
    e. explanation of test score received, with suggestions for improvement.

f. explanation and provision of opportunities for retesting.

3. The use of supplementary materials, especially in cases where the personnel worker believes a disadvantaged background may bias the test results:

a. detailed application blank, allowing for work-related as well as regular work experience.

b. interview with applicant to ascertain motivation, achievement relative to subcultural limitations, etc.

4. The use of a trial period on the job to supplement the above results if adequate differentiation among applicants is not possible.

5. Careful evaluation of all the above information on each applicant by a responsible personnel worker cognizant of the problems faced by different types of applicants.

A more satisfactory and scientific solution can be reached only when research has established the relative importance and validity of these factors in the selection process for each subgroup of applicants.

The first step could be local validation of existing testing procedures -- by accepting some applicants who did not pass various tests in order to test the validity of those tests. Ultimately, however, large-scale research is needed to establish meaningful test validities and norms for different cultural subgroups.

Research indicates that it is more reasonable to expect applicants from minority group backgrounds to show a different relationship between test scores and job performance than to expect them to have the same relationship recorded for majority group applicants. For this reason, we must utilize research to ascertain scientifically which particular testing and weighting procedures are the most valid for each cultural subgroup. Such large-scale research would have to be conducted by the government or by large corporations, and the results could not be assumed to be equally valid for all corporations. More definite guidelines could be established concerning which types of tests and interviews are more valid for the various subgroups relative to their performance on the job. For example, research to date indicates written tests and general intelligence and ability tests are not valid indicators of job performance for minority applicants, while tests of actual performance show more promise. More detailed research on other types of tests and selection procedures is needed to clarify and extend these results, and the development of truly unbiased selection procedures demonstrably related to job performance awaits the outcome of such research.*

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* For more recommendations for action on this problem, see "Fair Employment Practices Equal Good Employment Practices;" Wallace, *et. al.*; and the Equal Economic Opportunity Commission's booklet (see Bibliography following).

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THE NEGRO AND ORGANIZED LABOR:
A SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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PART I

Anderson, E. C. "Dealing with Inter-Racial Tensions on Local Union, Grass Roots Basis" Labor and Nation, Fall, 1950. pp. 55-56.

Based on a detailed report of an experiment in combating racial prejudices conducted through unions in St. Louis by the American Labor Education Service.

Babow, I. and Howdn, E. A Civil Rights Inventory of San Francisco. Part I. Council for Civic Unity. San Francisco, June 1958. Chapter 5.

Discusses the distribution of Negroes in various unions in San Francisco Bay Area and racial practices.

Bloch, Herman D. "Craft Unions: A Link in the Circle of Negro Discrimination," Phylon, Vol. 18, No. 4, 1957, pp. 361-373.

A general discussion of the racial practices of craft unions with particular emphasis on building trades unions.

Carlson, E. "Integration at Work," Wall Street Journal. May 18, 1965.

Discusses how craft union barriers against Negroes are beginning to fall in many cities, but emphasizes how the slow pace disturbs many Negro and civil rights leaders.

Garbin, A.P., and Ballweg, J.A. "Intra-Plant Mobility of Negro and White Workers," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 71, No. 3, Nov. 1965, pp. 315-319.

Examines the dissimilar, intra-plant mobility patterns of Negro and white workers employed at a midwestern meat-packing plant. The authors conclude that although the Negroes may differ from the whites in such dimensions as motivation, ambitions and other personality characteristics, it appears warranted to conclude that the dissimilarities in the intra-plant mobility patterns are the product of discriminatory transfer policies. Moreover, the effectiveness of union-sponsored non-discrimination clauses is questionable in changing these policies.

Greer, Scott. Last Man In: Racial Access to Unions, Glencoe: The Free Press, 1959. 189 pp.

A detailed discussion of the various means by which members of minority groups gain leadership in local unions in Los Angeles. The author's findings are based on an examination of 28 local unions which have large numbers of Negro and Mexican members.

Greer, Scott. "Situational Pressures and Functional Role of the Ethnic Labor Leaders," Social Forces, Vol. 32, Oct. 1953, pp. 41-45.

The author identifies and discusses the various pressures which impinge upon ethnic labor leaders who serve special, but different, functions for the union leadership and the minority contingent within the union. He notes significant differences in the attitudes and behavior of elected ethnic labor leaders as compared with appointed minority labor leaders. Elected leaders are usually committed to the membership and usually along ethnic lines. The appointed leader, however, is dependent upon the top leadership and is not committed to the minority group members. He does not really need their support and cannot afford to gamble his position to gain such support. This article is based on a survey of 20 local unions in Los Angeles County. Of the 81 professional leaders of these locals, 16 are Mexican and 8 are Negro -- 30 percent of the total. The proportion of the members in the unions who are Mexican or Negro is approximately 50 percent.

Hill, Herbert. "Racism Within Organized Labor: A Report of 5 Years of the AFL-CIO, 1955-1960." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 30, No. 2, Spring, 1961.

The AFL-CIO failed to eliminate the broad pattern of racial discrimination and segregation in many important unions, in spite of the pledge to do so at the time of the merger. Where union membership remains a condition of employment as in the building trades, railroads, etc., trade union discrimination bars Negro workers from these industries.

Hope, John. "The Self-Survey of the Packinghouse Union: A Technique for Effecting Change," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 9, No. 1, Jan. 1953, pp. 28-36.

Report on efforts of the C.I.O. Packinghouse Workers Union, which is one-fourth Negro in membership, to eliminate discrimination in its ranks, in the processing plants, and in the neighboring communities through a continuing assessment of its equal opportunity program.

Hope, John. Equality of Opportunity: A Union Approach to Fair Employment. Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1956. 142 pp.

A study of the effect of unions on social and economic opportunities in which the author reveals the efforts of Packinghouse Workers Union to eliminate discrimination within the union.

Hope, John. "Equality of Employment Opportunity: A Process Analysis of Union Initiative," Readings in Unemployment, U.S. Senate Special Committee on Unemployment Problems, 88th Congress, 2nd Session, 1960. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, pp. 961-973.

An extended discussion of the steps taken by the United Packinghouse Workers Union to overcome discrimination within its ranks.

Kornhauser, W. "Ideology and Interests: The Determinates of Union Action," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 9, No. 1, 1953, pp. 49-60.

This article examines the role of ideology and interests in union race relations practices and shows where interest and ideology are in conflict, the latter is usually sacrificed.

Kornhauser, William. "The Negro Union Official: A Study of Sponsorship and Control," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 57, No. 5, March, 1952, pp. 443-452.

A study of selected Negro officials in thirty-four of the largest national unions. The author concludes that two conditions must be present if a Negro is to be selected for office in a predominantly white trade union. First, there must ordinarily be a sizable Negro membership and secondly, the union must be facing a conflict. The typical mode of selection is sponsorship in meeting the conflict. The two major roles played by the sponsored Negro leader (the symbolic and the liaison) support the white leaders' interests in maintaining control over the union. The Negro official may try to modify these roles, however, since they present problems for his personal career.

Levey, S. "City Unions Held Failing to Assist Low-Paid Worker," New York Times, Section 1, February 18, 1962, p. 1.

Report by the Association of Catholic Trade Unionists accuses New York City labor leaders of being indifferent about exploitation of thousands of Negro and Puerto Rican union members. Documentation,along with suggestions to end racketeering, was sent to the executive board of AFL-CIO.

Luden, L.E. "Antidiscrimination Provisions in Major Contracts," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 85, No. 6, June, 1962, pp. 643-651.

Only about one-fifth of major collective bargaining agreements in effect in 1961 contained specific provisions against discrimination because of race, color, or national origin. Tables included.

Marshall, Ray. The Negro and Organized Labor, New York, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965, 375 pp.

An excellent, well-developed study of the relations between the Negro and organized labor which focuses on the factors responsible for the evolution of union racial practices. This book is divided into three parts. Part One outlines the historical development of the general relations between unions and the Negro community, and underlines some of the major forces which influence current relations between Negroes and the AFL-CIO. Part Two identifies the various types and methods of union discrimination. Part Three evaluates the influence of public policy on union racial practices. The author concludes with some predictions about the future relations between the two groups, and presents a conceptual framework for understanding the key variables which will determine the nature of these future relations.

The data for this study came mainly from field studies and interviews which were conducted throughout the nation over a period of several years. The book is rich in new material and previously unavailable documents from union sources.

This study, the first work of its kind to appear in more than twenty years, is undoubtedly the most important source in the literature on racial labor problems.

Marshall, Ray. "Some Factors Influencing Union Racial Practices," Industrial Relations Research Association Proceedings, 1961, pp. 104-119.

The author identifies and discusses some of the basic forces which influence union policies and practices with respect to Negroes. He attempts to explain why these practices are established, perpetuated, or changed.

Marshall, Ray. "Union Racial Problems in the South." Industrial Relations, May, 1962, pp. 117-128.

Examination of the racial issue as it affects Southern labor unions leads to the conclusion that it has had little effect upon the success of organizing activities, that few locals or members have withdrawn from unions because of equalitarian racial policies, that segregationist labor organizations have been relatively unsuccessful, and that "the main impact . . . has probably been in the political area."

Marshall, Ray. "Union Racial Practices and the Labor Market," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 85, No. 3, March, 1962. pp. 268-270.

Union racial barriers are more likely to be relaxed during periods of tight labor market. The ease or difficulty with which a trade may be learned and practiced is a significant consideration in changing union racial practices.

Another labor market factor perpetuating racial job patterns is the employer's preference for white or Negro labor. The scope of collective bargaining is a factor influencing the unions' ability to discriminate. Organizations which have purely local bargaining arrangements are more likely to discriminate than those that use national bargaining.

Marshall, Ray. "Some Factors Influencing the Upgrading of Negroes in the Southern Petroleum Refining Industry." Social Forces, Vol. 42, No. 2, Dec. 1963, pp. 186-194.

Marshall presents a discussion of Negro and civil rights efforts to upgrade Negroes occupationally by breaking down segregated lines of promotion, with special attention given to the petroleum industry in the southwest and southeast. Some of the efforts to eliminate segregated seniority lines are examined and the factors on which employment patterns change are discussed. Economic conditions influenced integration through their effect on the labor market and the attitudes of labor, management, and the Negroes. when management and the unions were solidly behind integration, resistance from white workers was ineffective. The promotion of Negro workers depended on their ability and the promotion system adopted as a result of integration.

Marshall, Ray. "Union Racial Practices," Hearings Before the Senate Subcommittee on Employment and Manpower of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. September 10, 1963. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office.

A general discussion of discriminatory practices of unions with emphasis on racial exclusion by formal and informal means, segregated local unions, discrimination in the building trades, and the ways unions influence Negro economic opportunities. The author concludes with an analysis of some of the major factors changing these patterns.

Marshall, Ray, and Briggs, Vernon M., Jr. Negro Participation In Apprenticeship Programs, A Report to the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, Manpower Administration, U. S. Department of Labor, December 1966. 499 pp.

The most thorough and comprehensive discussion of the factors responsible for the paucity of Negroes in union controlled apprenticeship training programs in the building trades, the printing trades, and selected mechanical trades in industrial plants. This study is based on field studies and interviews which were done in ten (trouble spot) cities where civil rights organizations or government agencies were attacking or about to attack the apprenticeship establishment. It is also augmented by many previously unavailable documents from union and government sources. The authors began their analysis with a discussion of the factors which focused attention on the issue of equal apprenticeship opportunities. Chapter II presents a brief general discussion of the nature of the apprenticeship system in the United States. Chapter III discusses the extent of Negro participation in apprenticeship.

Chapters IV-XII present their findings with respect to Negro participation in apprenticeship programs in various cities. Chapter XIII analyzes the various remedial measures which have been adopted to increase Negro participation in these programs. The final chapter contains the author's recommendations for increasing the number of Negro apprentices.

"Nondiscrimination Clauses in Union Agreements, San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area," California Industrial Relations Reports, No. 9. (San Francisco: Division of Labor Statistics and Research, State Department of Industrial Relations, March, 1956.)

A survey of anti-discrimination clauses in union contracts in the San Francisco Bay Area.

Norgren, Paul H., Webster, Albert N., Borgeson, and Patten, Maud B. Employing the Negro in American Industry, Industrial Relations Monograph No. 17, New York, Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc. 1959. 171 pp.

This study seeks an answer to the primary question: How can employment opportunities for Negroes be expanded by American industry? The study aims at making available information on specific practices in the employment of Negroes. The objectives are to examine the problems that arise when management establishes a policy of hiring Negroes and what workable policies and procedures are followed by these companies in achieving the goal of broader employment for Negroes.

Reitzes, D. C. "The Role of Organizational Structures: Union Versus Neighborhood in a Tension Situation," Journal of Social Issues, No. 2, 1953, pp. 37-44.

Findings of this study show that present and anticipated behavior of people in society will depend primarily in the kind of organization that exists in the given area of conflict. The authors analyzed the rejection or acceptance of Negroes in a residential neighborhood (with pattern of strong rejection of Negroes) and on the job where some individuals participated in unions which strongly accepted Negroes on an equal basis.

Rose, Arnold. "The Influence of a Border City Union on the Race Attitudes of its Members," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 9, No. 2, Winter 1953, pp. 20-24.

Data presented here are part of a larger study on race attitudes and union solidarity in a teamsters' local in St. Louis. Evidence shows that a positive program to reduce race prejudice on the part of the union's leaders can have a "significant, though partial", effect on union members.

Strauss, George, and Ingerman, Sidney. "Public Policy and Discrimination in Apprenticeship," The Hastings Law Journal, Vol. 16, No. 3, Feb. 1965. pp. 285-331.

Severe obstacles face Negroes who wish to enter apprenticeship programs in the building trades, the most severe seeming to be the implicit aggreement among union officials that friends and relatives will be given preference. Government attempts to prevent discrimination by enforcing fair employment laws fail partly because the commissions do not receive many complaints and union leaders are more responsive to their members than to the commissions. If the government tries to strictly enforce discrimination rules, the unions may decide to forego apprenticeship. Tables.

"Trainmen Vote to End Race Bar In Basic Law," AFL-CIO News, January 23, 1960, p. 1.

The Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen convention delegates voted to delete from their constitution the seventy-five year-old clause restricting membership to white males. It is important to note that this union has had Negro members despite this clause, and has more than one thousand Negro members now.

"Union Programs for Eliminating Discrimination," Monthly Labor Review, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1963, Vol. 86, No. 1, pp. 58-60.

Report on joint statement signed by the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, represented by its chairman, Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson, with representatives of the AFL-CIO pledging to end union discrimination against minority groups. The names of the cooperating unions are listed.

"Trade Unions and Minority Problems," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 9, No. 2, Winter 1953. Entire Issue.

A series of papers which analyze intergroup relations in organized labor, and focus on problems involving racial groups both as seen and as evaded by the unions.

The Status of Negroes in Craft Unions in the Pittsburgh Labor Market. A special Report of the Mayor's Commission on Human Relations, 1964.

This document reports the findings of a survey conducted in November and December of 1964 to determine the number of Negro apprentices and journeymen in selected building trades unions in the Pittsburgh area. The authors concluded that union is strong where the following factors prevail: (A) Where there is a decline in demand for the trade and a surplus of unemployed members in the craft. (B) Where control of membership emanates from manufacturers. (C) Where the old-line union pattern of handing down membership from generation to generation is maintained.

"Racial Discrimination in the Cincinnati Building Trades," Report Issued by the Ohio Civil Rights Commission, February 24, 1966.

A detailed report on the patterns of racial discrimination in the Cincinnati Building Trades. Contractors participate in illegal closed shops, unions ignore and discourage Negro applications by limiting membership opportunities through job control, high and impractical admission standards and other devices. Joint apprenticeship committees have limited and discontinued training programs, and have imposed impractical standards and qualifications, all of which excluded or discouraged Negroes.

Illinois State Commission of Human Relations (Chicago). A Study of Merit Employment in 100 Illinois Firms, May 1956, p. 22.

Researchers discovered that in 23 of 59 unionized establishments studied, unions favored, and cooperated in the carrying out of a policy of hierarchical employment; in five, they were either reluctant or opposed to it; and in 31 they took a "completely neutral" attitude.

National Urban League, The Negro and the Building Trades Unions, New York: National Urban League, Industrial Relations Department, Mimeo. 1958.

A survey of Negro membership in selected building trades unions in selected cities across the nation. The report identifies several locals in major cities which have no Negro members.

New York State Commission Against Discrimination, Apprentices, Skilled Craftsmen, and the Negro: An Analysis, April, 1960.

A detailed analysis of the status of nonwhites in skilled craft occupations and related apprenticeship training programs in New York State. Particular emphasis is placed on the role of unions as a barrier to Negro participation in many of the trades and apprenticeship programs.

The City Commission on Human Rights, Bias in The Building Industry: An Interim Report to the Mayor, December, 1963, New York, New York.

A documentary survey of discrimination by building trades unions and contractors in the largest U. S. city.

"New York Printers Adopt Plan on Non-Discrimination," AFL-CIO News, April 25, 1964.

Union printers and commercial print shops have agreed to a specific plan for apprentice selection and training to implement non-discrimination clauses in their current contracts.

"Union's Ban on Negroes Upheld," U.S. News and World Report, Oct. 11, 1957, pp. 127.

Right of a union to deny membership to Negro workers is upheld by a federal court case involving the Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen Brotherhood.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Reports on Employment, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961, pp. 127-151.

This document presents detailed examples of segregation and discrimination in industrial and crafts unions in each of the nation's fifty states. It contains separate reports from every state's advisory committees, which are not uniform in approach or content. Some are based on information developed in the course of public hearings, some on data secured by means of questionnaires, and others on field studies.

U.S. Civil Rights Commission, Reports on Apprenticeship, 1964.

A collection of individual reports of the 50 State Advisory Committees which document the paucity of Negroes in many union controlled apprenticeship programs.

Wheeler, John H. "The Impact of Race Relations on Industrial Relations in the South," Labor Law Journal, Vol. 15, July 1964. pp. 474-481.

The author discusses, briefly, the racial practices of trade union in the South.

Wortman, M.S. and Luthans, F. "How Many Contracts Ban Discrimination in Employment?" Personnel, January-February, 1964.

Findings of a 1961 study of 139 contracts involving 87,977 employees in the Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area show that "labor and management have a long way to go in formally committing themselves to policies which ban discrimination in employment."

PART II

Appruzzese, Vincent J. "Discrimination -- The Law of the Land versus The Law of the Land," Labor Law Journal, Vol. 14, 1963.

In this discussion of civil liberties, which examines the problems of discrimination in the building and construction industry, the author suggests that industry and government officials will be faced with very different problems. This is because the very law which furthered the cause of the Negro in the field of education does not lend itself to the achievement of the same goal in the area of employment in the construction industry. The author attempts to identify the limitations which may exist.

Checkis, Lawrence D. "NLRB Decertifies Racially Segregated Union Locals." New York University Law Review. Vol. 39, Dec. 1964.

A report on the Hughes-Tool case involving the Independent Sheet Metal Workers Union which was decertified by the NLRB for refusing to process grievances of Negro workers who were organized into a separate, segregated local.

Gould, William, "Labor Law and the Negro," New Leader, October 12, 1964.

A discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of the current labor legislation in terms of its application to the problem of discrimination by labor unions.

Haller, George D. "Racial Discrimination in Unions," Labor Law Journal, Vol. 8, No 7, July 1957. pp. 479-481.

The author discusses an important decision made by the Wisconsin Supreme Court which held that racial discrimination by unions in rejecting membership applications was beyond judicial relief. He expresses the opinion that such arbitrary discrimination constitutes a legal wrong for which a remedy should have been provided in consideration of economic realities.

Herring, Neil M. "The Fair Representation Doctrine: An Effective Weapon Against Union Racial Discrimination?" Maryland Law Review, Vol. 24, No. 2, Spring 1964.

In the evolution of American Labor Law, governmental remedies for racial discrimination by labor unions are relatively recent phenomena. The "fair representation" doctrine, a narrowly defined approach in a field replete with broader alternatives, is a response to a variety of problems faced by particular groups.

Hickey, Robert J. "Government Regulations of Union Racial Policies." Boston College Industrial and Commercial Law Review, Vol. VII, No. 2, Winter 1966, pp. 191-237.

The author examines in detail the various laws (including the U.S. Constitution, The Railway Labor Act, the National Labor Relations Act, The Civil Rights Act of 1964, Executive Orders No. 10925 and 11114, The Secretary of Labor's Apprenticeship Regulations and Titles I, IV, and V of the Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act) and the interrelationships among them which regulate union racial practices.

Kaufmann, Earnest T. "Labor Law -- Union Membership Denied on the Basis of Racial Discrimination," Wisconsin Law Review, March 1958, pp. 294-311.

The author focuses on some interesting problems which are presented by Wisconsin's Fair Employment Practices Law and suggests possible ammendments.

Kahn, Stephen D. "Racial Discrimination in Unions," Temple Law Quarterly, Vol. 38, No. 3, Spring 1965. pp. 311-341.

Due to emerge as a new focus of attention in the field of civil liberties is the problem of racial discrimination in the labor movement. When the NLRB rendered its decision in Hughes it created a host of new problems. The role intended by Congress for the Board must now be reconsidered in light of the Board's obvious intentions to take an active role in this area. The initial problem is one of jurisdictional conflicts. The Hughes decision makes it possible that racial discrimination by a labor union is "arguably subject of section 7 or 8," thereby vesting exclusive jurisdiction in the NLRB. The federal courts might thereby be excluded from jurisdiction. Duplicate jurisdiction is dysfunctional. The most sensible solution would be for the Board to retreat from its position and exclude itself from further participation in the field. Such a course of action would be consistent with the maintenance of a uniform national labor policy.

King, R. L. "Protecting Rights of Minority Employees," Labor Law Journal, Feb. 1960. pp. 143-54.

Rights of what is popularly known as the "free rider" are discussed and duties of exclusive bargaining representatives toward minority groups are analyzed.

Ludlow, T. "The Fourth Argument," Labor Law Journal, Jan. 1964.

The author presents social, economic, and historical arguments justifying discriminatory practices of local unions. He then offers a plan to defeat the fourth argument (legal defense of discrimination) by strengthening existing laws that include sections outlawing membership based on race, color, or creed.

Maloney, Walter H., Jr. "Racial and Religious Discrimination in Employment and the Role of the NLRB." Maryland Law Review, Vol. 21, Summer 1961, pp. 219-232.

A review of the present status of federal law regarding racial discrimination, with particular reference to the agency (NLRB) charged with the responsibility of supervising wide areas of labor-management relations in most large-scale industries. The author concludes that Congress should expand the functions of the NLRB in the handling of racial and religious discrimination in employment.

Marshall, Ral. "Union Structure and Public Policy: The Control of Union Racial Practices." Political Science Quarterly, Vol. 78, No. 3, Sept. 1963, pp. 445-458.

A conceptual framework which might be useful in implementing non-discriminatory policies regarding trade unions is developed. Public policy must be based on an understanding of power, strategy, and organizational structures. Because the main problem of racial discrimination seems to be at the local level, implementation of public policy will often depend on the power relations between local and national unions. Evidence suggests that union policies will be changed only when the priority of the issue is raised within the organization by various pressures.

Pressler, Sylvia B., and Fundler, Burton L. "Discrimination in Union Membership: Denial of Due Process Under Federal Collective Bargaining Legislation." Rutgers Law Review, Vol. 12, Summer 1958, pp. 543-556.

The authors argue that equal representation in the collective bargaining process requires equal membership opportunities in the union. A labor union with a discriminatory membership policy should be disqualified as the exclusive bargaining representative. Since in the bargaining process the union itself takes on the character of a governmental agency under the Labor Management Relations Act or Railway Labor Act, the union can be directly enjoined from discrimination under the due process requirements of the Fifth Amendment.

Sachs, Rudolf. "The Racial Issue as an Anti-Union Tool and the National Labor Relations Board." Labor Law Journal, Vol. 14, Oct. 1963. pp. 849-864.

The author deals with the problem of discrimination in labor organizations in the context of the decisions of the National Labor Relations Board. He feels that the Board has broadened the employer's freedom of speech in general and at the same time has given him the right to express his views on race relations which is not only undesirable, but also in violation of the law when appeals to race hate are protected as free speech.

Sherman, Herbert L., Jr. "Union Duty of Fair Representation and the Civil Rights Act of 1964." Minnesota Law Review, Vol. 49, April 1965.

Implementation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which deals with discrimination by labor unions, may conflict with some of the currently recognized remedies under the federal labor statutes for discriminatory practices by labor unions. The author proposes a theory of accommodation in the administration of the federal labor statutes and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. The author concludes that many of the remedies developed under the labor statutes to ensure fair treatment by unions should stand. On the other hand, an appraisal of the possibilities of conflict with the choice made by Congress to implement Title VII indicates that unfair labor practice remedies of the NLRB should yield to the procedures for affirmative relief contemplated by Title VII for discrimination covered by that title.

Sovern, Michael I. "The National Labor Relations Act and Racial Discrimination." Columbia Law Review, Vol. 62, April 1962. pp. 563-632.

A detailed discussion of the two sections of the National Labor Relations Act -- 8 (b) 2 and 9 (2) -- which as interpreted by the courts constitute a limited racial antidiscrimination law directed to labor unions. Argues that, while these strictures against racial discrimination by unions are weak compared with what is needed for Negroes denied admission to or fair representation by unions, such Negro workers could obtain some relief by utilizing the complaint procedures of the NLRB and the federal courts to the full extent of the possibilities.

Weiss, Leo. "Federal Remedies for Racial Discrimination by Labor Unions," Georgetown Law Journal, Vol. 50, Spring 1962.

The author views the problem of discriminatory practices of some labor unions from two perspectives: the litigation directed against these unions, and the services and benefits conferred upon them by the Railway Labor Act and the National Labor Relations Act. He found that although judicial remedies are available to injured employees, federal administrative agencies, and in particular, the NLRB "indirectly assist" in perpetuating discrimination, and thus, engage in governmental action forbidden by the Fifth Amendment when they enforce and protect the exclusive bargaining position of a discriminating union.

"Union Racial Discrimination -- Recent Developments Before the NLRB." Georgetown Law Journal, Vol. 53, No. 4, Summer 1965. pp. 1103-1115.

A discussion of the implications of recent developments before the NLRB under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The author concludes that boundaries between the jurisdictional areas of the NLRB and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission are unclear and that Congress should act to correct this problem. One solution would be an ammendment to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act which would grant the EEOC power to issue cease and desist orders, thus centralizing all matters concerning racial discrimination by employer or union within a single agency possessed of both conciliatory and remedial authority. Alternatively, Congress should, by amendment of the Taft-Hartley Act, delineate the NLRB's jurisdiction in this area as concurrent with that of the EEOC.

"The Civil Rights Act of 1964: Racial Discrimination By Labor Unions," St. Johns Law Review, Vol. 41, No. 1, July 1966, pp. 58-81.

A review of union racial practices and a discussion of the limits of the laws designed to control these practices.

"NLRB Cracks Down on Union Bias," Business Week, July 11, 1964, p. 50.

NLRB ruling that a union representing employees unequally forfeits legal standing as bargaining agent given civil rights groups a new weapon against job discrimination.

"Assault on Job Bias," Wall Street Journal, Feb. 7, 1966. p. 1ff.

Government plans to cancel or suspend contracts with some 40 companies deemed to be discriminatory in an effort to open up job opportunities to Negroes and other minorities. A test case is now shaping up in St. Louis where the Justice Department has filed its first suit in Federal Court against organized labor charging the AFL-CIO Building and Construction Trades Council and 5 member unions with a pattern of discriminatory practices in a government building project.

PART III

Bailer, Lloyd H. "Organized Labor and Racial Minorities," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, March, 1951, pp. 101-107.

A discussion of relations between Negro workers and the labor movement. Pressure for equal treatment of racial minorities has resulted in changes for the better since 1945. Prior to 1946, union racial policies fell into three general categories: those unions dedicated to full equality for all workers, those which accepted the racial practices of the employer, and those which were outright discriminatory.

Barton, L. "Cleveland Compromise," Wall Street Journal, August 26, 1963, p. 8.

Story of Negro plumbers' successful breakdown of craft union bans, with the Plumbers Local agreeing to sign with Negro contractors and to open apprenticeship to Negroes.

Bloch, Herman D. "Negroes and Organized Labor." Journal of Human Relations, Vol. 10, Summer 1962, pp. 357-374.

Organized labor in the United States has always discriminated against Negroes as a means of controlling the labor market. Of the early union federations, the National Labor Union did discriminate and the Knights of Labor did not. Although Samuel Gompers warned that discrimination would force Negroes to become strikebreakers, the AFL allowed the local unions to determine their own racial policy. Present means of discrimination include the Caucasian clause, tacit consent, partial restriction in employment and limited promotion. This discrimination leads to poor training for Negro workers, a low standard of living and reenforcement of the idea that Negroes are inferior.

Bloch, Herman D. "Craft Unions and the Negro in Historical Perspective," Journal of Negro History, January, 1958, pp. 10-38.

Public and employer racial prejudice crystalized as national unions were formed which used social subordination of Negroes as an economic weapon to maintain economic security and socio-economic status of members. The Negro remains "an outsider in the craft labor movement."

Chason, Will. "American Labor Attacks its Own Segregation Problems." The Reporter, Vol. 18, May 1958.

George Meany, president of AFL-CIO, has given priority to the fight against discrimination, and has refused to accept the doctrine that each international is autonomous. Examples of Meany's efforts are given.

Fleischman, H. "Labor and the Civil Rights Revolution ," New Leader, April 18, 1960, pp. 16-21.

Trade unions' civil rights for Negroes proceed slowly but the action of AFL-CIO is speeding progress. Discriminatory practices of various unions and locals are detailed. AFL-CIO efforts to correct them are reported.

Fleischman, Harry and Rorty, James. We Open The Gates: Labor's Fight for Equality, New York: National Labor Service, 1958, 64 pp.

A two year study based on experiences of 16 labor unions which showed that workers in the South are gradually moving toward the acceptance of effective integration in the labor movement. Primary emphasis is placed on "success stories" in the fight against discrimination.

Hill, Herbert. "Organized Labor and the Negro Wage Earner," New Politics, Vol. 1, Winter 1962, pp. 8-19.

In the late 1930's and early 1940's, it was generally felt that the CIO would champion the cause of Negro workers, and that the "old line" AFL craft union traditions of racial exclusion and segregation would be thrust aside in the forward surge of the new industrial unions. However since the merger of the AFL-CIO, the social consciousness of the industrial unions with their sensitivity to the problems of the Negro wage earner has now all but totally vanished. Instead trade unions have reacted like other institutions in America to the new demands of Negroes for full equality.

Marshall, Ray. "Unions and the Negro Community," Industrial and Labor Relations Review, Vol. 17, No. 2, January 1964, pp. 179-202.

"The evolution and current state of relations between the labor movement and the Negro community are the subject of this study. The author, after tracing early strains in these relations, examines the period of rapprochement during the era of the CIO, which, in turn, was succeeded by increasing tensions following the AFL-CIO merger. Despite these tensions, the author concludes that Negro unionists are not likely to withdraw from the labor movement and that the latter can be expected to undertake an increasingly vigorous policy of eliminating discrimination in its ranks."

Marshall, Ray, "American Minorities: Unions' Future, or Unrecruitable?" The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1963.

The growing Negro-union schism is rooted in changes which are taking place in the Negro community. It is unlikely that Negroes will break Negro-labor political alliances, but because the Negro community is exerting pressure on its leaders, these leaders will probably continue to attack unions. Moreover, unions will be subjected to increasing governmental pressures to eliminate discrimination.

"Negroes and the Labor Movement: An Exchange," New Politics, Spring 1962, pp. 135-141.

Seymour Lipset, William Gomberg, Tom Kahn, and Herbert Hill discuss an article by Hill which appeared under the title of "Organized Labor and the Negro Wage Earner."

"Negroes and the Labor Movement: An Exchange--2." New Politics, Fall 1962.

The second exchange stemming from an article ("Organized Labor and the Negro Wage Earner") by Herbert Hill, National Labor Secretary of the NAACP. The discussants include Hill, William Doyle, Bill Goode, Seymour M. Lipset, William Gomberg, B. K. Johnpoll, and Daniel J. Schulder.

Hill, Herbert. "The ILGWU Today--The Decay of a Labor Union." New Politics, Summer 1962. 12 pp.

A study of the status of nonwhite workers in the garment industry which concludes that Negro and Puerto Rican workers are the victims of a broad pattern of racial discrimination. Union membership, leadership, and wage scales are discussed. Hill states that Negro and Puerto Rican members are systematically excluded from the leadership and policy making procedures of the union. Recommendations.

Tyler, Gus. "The Truth About the ILGWU." New Politics, Vol. 2, No. 1, Fall 1962.

Gus Tyler, Director of Politics, Education and Training of the International Ladies Garment Workers Union, answers charges that ILGWU discriminates against Negroes and Puerto Ricans.

Raskin, A. H., "Negro Labor Unit Maps Rights Fight," New York Times, Section I, May 29, 1960, p. 26.

Author discusses the blueprint adopted by delegates at the first convention of the Negro American Labor Council which calls for the removal of all union color bars to membership or job progress, the reform of apprenticeship systems, the elimination of racially segregated unions, and for greater representation for Negroes at all levels of employment. In addition, the NALC demands that AFL-CIO overhaul its civil rights machinery to assure more adequate policing of affiliated unions.

"Equal Rights Sought in New York Strike," AFL-CIO News, May 8, 1965, p. 2.

Unique strike seeking equal employment opportunities for members of minority groups as well as improved wages and benefits by Retail, Wholesale Union at 1,200 establishments in the garment center.

Soderlind, S.E. "Southern Labor: Segregation Controversy Thwarts Union Plans for Organizing Dixie," Wall Street Journal, February 6, 1957, p. 1.

Discusses experiences of organizers in the South. The policy of unions favoring integration is given as an important factor accounting for the recent failure of southern organizing drives.

"Anti-Bias Drive." Business Week, March 5, 1960, p. 54.

George Meany, president of AFL-CIO, and President's Committee on Government Contracts launch new effort to end job discrimination against Negroes in the building and contraction industry.

"AFL-CIO Acts on Racial Ban," Industrial Union Division Bulletin, March 1960, p. 14.

The AFL-CIO calls upon the President's Committee on Government Contracts to enforce equal rights on government contracts ensuring Negroes equal opportunity on government building projects and pledges aid in supplying qualified Negro workers where unions have barred them from membership.

Jones, Barbara A. Union Locals and The Under-utilization of Negro Workers. M.A. Thesis, University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois, 1966.

An evaluation of the efforts of selected local unions in metropolitan Chicago to reduce the underutilization of Negro workers in that city.

Jones, James E. An Analysis of the Implementation of the UAW-CIO's Fair Practices and Anti-Discrimination Policies in Selected Chicago Locals. M.A. Thesis, University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois, 1951.

"Race Trouble Hurt Unions, Too," U.S. News and World Report, April 6, 1956, pp. 95-99.

Organizing activities of unions in the South are stalled because some rank-and-file union members are angry over AFL-CIO leaders approval of racial integration in Southern schools. There is talk in some union locals of seceding from parent organizations and forming a "southern federation of labor."

"South's Tension Seizes Labor," Business Week, April 14, 1956, pp. 47-48.

Southern disputes over racial integration have created severe tensions in the ranks of labor there. AFL-CIO organizing activities are brought to a standstill. Relations between white and Negro workers in integrated locals deteriorate. Each aspect of the problem is discussed as well as the positions of management.

Townsend, W. S. "U.S. Labor's Fight Against Race Prejudice," International Free Trade Union News, June 1956, p. 3.

A brief review of the fight for equal status that has been stayed by Negro Americans since the Civil War, and the role of unions in the battle against discrimination.

"Labor Anti-Bias Group Formed in New York State," Advance, Nov. 15, 1956, p. 8.

Labor Advisory Committee against Discrimination, composed of union leaders in New York, is formed, and will work to translate AFL-CIO statements of principle concerning discrimination into action.

"Southern Rebs," Business Week, July 28, 1956, p. 113.

Southern Union members who are disturbed about AFL-CIO stand in favor of "race integration" decided to form their own Southern Federation of Labor.

"Revolt in the South," Fortune, Vol. 53, May 1956, pp. 215-216.

Southern unionists demonstrate that they are "southerners first" by denouncing the AFL-CIO stand in favor of racial integration. This article discusses the concern of AFL-CIO officials over activities of southern unionists in White Citizens' Councils.

"Race Problems Build Up For Unions," Business Week, May 17, 1958, p. 138.

An increasing number of charges of racial discrimination by unions has been filed by Negro workers in New York State.

"Union Bias," Business Week, April 10, 1954, p. 168.

Although most labor unions admit Negroes to membership on an equal basis with whites, some do not. The key ruling in field was made by the Supreme Court of Connecticut when it upheld a fine levied against local 35 of International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers for rejecting the membership applications of two Negroes.

TESTING OF MINORITY GROUP JOB APPLICANTS: A SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Prepared by
M. R. Newcomb
Carol Borut

Barrett, Richard S. "Differential Selection Among Applicants from Different Socio-Economic Ethnic Backgrounds." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 91-102.

Describes a study proposal for determining whether differences exist in test results of job applicants from different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds. The object of the study is to provide information needed to improve the accuracy and fairness of hiring procedures. Applicants for a given type of job will be divided into two or more sub-groups and selection procedures will be applied differentially to members of the two groups. Presents implications of possible results, choice of statistical techniques, and a description of the research design. References.

Bayroff, A.G. "Test Technology and Equal Employment Opportunity." Personnel Psychology, Vol. 19, No. 1, Spring 1966. pp. 35-39.

Raises some general issues and questions about test technology. As his point of departure the author uses a description of the development and predictive validity of the Armed Forces Qualification Test. This test illustrates the possibility that the chosen analysis methods and norms may introduce bias for particular subcultures although perhaps not for the population as a whole.

Blanton, John W. "On-the Job Experiences of Negro Managers." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, New Jersey. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 141-154.

The author, a Negro engineer from Louisville, Kentucky, discusses his employment experiences with three companies: Bell Aircraft with which he first worked as an engineer then later returned to as Assistant Head of Rocket Research; a smaller company with which he first became a supervisor; and General Electric with which he has served in a variety of managerial positions. The author has not found being Negro to be a disadvantage in his contact with employers or customers and suggests that there should be no differences in training of Negro and white managers.

Campbell, Joel T. "The Problem of Cultural Bias in Selection: I. Background and Literature." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 57-63.

Indirect and incidental bias in the nonselection of Negroes can be explained by the deprivation effects of education and experience. Possible approaches for discovering a differential pattern between Negro and white test results and whether these results have predictive validity are discussed. The fact that companies are now recruiting Negroes for managerial positions and that better educational facilities exist should increase motivation levels, thus encouraging intellectual development of Negroes which will hopefully decrease test differentials. The answer to the problem of measuring performance is to increase ability rather than to juggle test scores. References.

Campbell, Joel. TESTING OF CULTURALLY DIFFERENT GROUPS. Research Bulletin RB-64-34. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. June 1964. 22 pp.

Summarizes research findings on testing culturally different groups, particularly Negroes. Attention is given to factors which are associated with changes in test scores. The effectiveness of tests in predicting performance of Negroes in integrated and segregated colleges is evaluated. The author gives suggestions for additional needed research, focusing particular attention on college selection and methods of remedying educational deficiences at the college level.

Cleary, T. Anne and Hilton, Thomas L. AN INVESTIGATION OF ITEM BIAS. Research Bulletin RB-66-17. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. April 1966. 20 pp.

The purpose of this research was to study the variation of Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) item scores in different racial and socio-economic groups. Bias is defined as an item x group interaction; if biased, an item produces an uncommon discrepancy between the performance of members of different groups. 12th grade students in integrated high schools were chosen as subjects. Analyses of variance were performed on the verbal and mathematical sections of both tests. Only a minimum percentage of the total variance was contributed by the item x group interactions; thus if PSAT scores are discriminatory this is attributable not to particular items but to the test as a whole. References. Tables.

Cleary, T. Anne. TEST BIAS: VALIDITY OF THE SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE TEST FOR NEGRO AND WHITE STUDENTS IN INTEGRATED COLLEGES. Research Bulletin RB-66-31. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. June 1966. 23 pp.

The definition of bias used here deals with the test as a whole used as a predictor: a test is biased for members of a subgroup if consistent nonzero errors of prediction are made for members of the subgroup when the common regression line is used. The prediction of college grade averages from the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) for Negro and white students in three integrated colleges was studied. A sample of white students matched with Negro students on curriculum was also studied. In the two eastern colleges no significant differences in the regression lines were found. In one college in the Southwest the SAT was found to be slightly biased in favor of the Negro student. References. Tables.

Culhane, Margaret M. "Testing the Disadvantaged." Employment Service Review, May 1965. 2 pp.

When used carefully, tests provide important tools for assisting the educationally and culturally disadvantaged by indicating an individual's present status and designating needed remedial action. The author discusses needed modifications of the administration and interpretation of standardized tests when applied to the disadvantaged. Consideration is given to the criteria and validity of the test itself, to proper testing practices, and to the orientation and motivation of the examinee.

Dreger, Ralph Mason and Miller, Kent S. RECENT RESEARCH IN PSYCHOLOGICAL COMPARISONS OF NEGROES AND WHITES IN THE UNITED STATES. Paper presented at the Southeastern Psychological Association Meeting. Atlanta, Georgia. April 2, 1965. 17 pp.

Selected research results from 1960-1965 are evaluated and related to previous research. Studies are grouped according to (1)physical and motor development; (2) psycho-physical functions; (3) intellectual functions; (4) educational attainment; (5) values and attitudes; (6) vocational interests; (7) crime and delinquency; and (8) emotional disturbances and mental illness. The authors conclude that all the work done seems to be related to the heredity-environment controversy, that investigators are becoming more sophisticated in the study of racial comparisons, and that the Negroes' revolt of the 1960's will influence future comparative psychological studies. References.

French, Robert L. "The Motorola Case." The Industrial Psychologist. Vol. 2, August 1965. pp. 29-50.

The author, witness on the plaintiff's side, presents background information and discusses the issues, decisions, the selection test, and implications for psychology of the Motorola Case. The issue involved is "that tests not disqualify people who, because of inferior educational opportunities, lack certain skills, if these skills are not actually needed for the job, or if they can quickly be learned on the job, or if a deficiency can be compensated for by possession of other characteristics." The challenge to psychologists is to develop and maintain standards for fair selection testing programs.

Dugan, Robert D. "Current Problems in Test Performance of Job Applicants: II." Personnel Psychology, Vol. 19, No. 1, Spring 1966. pp. 18-24.

Describes differences in two situations where northern employers attempted to recruit and hire graduates from predominantly Negro southern colleges. Comparisons are made between predominantly white graduates of northern colleges and predominantly Negro graduates of southern colleges. No attempt is made to develop a theoretical solution to this problem. The first set of data comes from an employer whose initial decision is based solely on a composite test score. The second set of data comes from a company which used interviews and the IBM Programmer Aptitude Test.

Giovannini, Peter C. EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY: ANOTHER ASPECT. Unpublished manuscript. n.d. 13 pp.

Examines the cultural bias found in employment selection tests and briefly reviews research which investigates Negro-white test differentials. Tests the thesis that cultural bias in examinations can be identified by comparing women toll collectors differing in race but matched for work performance. No differences exist in the variables of clerical speed and accuracy and biographic data; a significant difference was found between whites and Negroes in the general intelligence test. Thus it is concluded that this test discriminates in a way unrelated to work performance. Should cultural bias be found in tests, possible alternatives to aid the selector in personnel decisions are presented. References.

Gordon, Jesse E. (University of Michigan). CIVIL SERVICE TESTING AND JOB DISCRIMINATION. Unpublished manuscript. June 1966. 22 pp.

Examines the use of civil service tests, the major instrument through which exclusive hiring practices are maintained in government. In assessing the problems of low scoring disadvantaged job seekers, the author explores a set of interlocking circumstances of family background, housing, education and economic conditions which produce differential test results between lower and middle class people. The effects of processes which take place during testing are also discussed. Attention is directed toward test construction, standardization, validation and toward personnel policies implicit to these factors. The author concludes that it is feasible to surrender some investment in productivity in public employment in order to preserve an investment in equality of opportunity.

Gordon, Jesse E. (University of Michigan). THE CONGRESSIONAL HEARINGS AND ISSUES IN PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING: INVASIONS OF PRIVACY AND TEST BIAS. Unpublished manuscript. n.d. 27 pp.

This reaction to the American Psychologist issue on "Testing and Public Policy" questions the extent to which psychological testing may prevent applicants who might perform well from having access to government programs. Three issues linked by federal policy are discussed: invasions of privacy; test bias and civil rights; and self-determination of test takers. The author explores the effect that a more adequate representation of minority group members in an organization could have in making that organization more effective overall. Recommends the use of work sample tests or objectively scheduled and evaluated trial periods on the job in which content validity is identical with empirical validity.

Holland, Jerome H. "Preparation of the Negro College Graduate for Business." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 23-34.

The author refers to predominantly Negro colleges located mainly in the South in his discussion of preparing Negro college graduates for expanding employment opportunities. Consideration is given to the selection of students and faculty, development of a curriculum, college testing programs, and the need for financial assistance and placement offices to acquaint students with the changing employment picture. Presents several of the challenges confronting American business in the areas of recruiting, financial aid, human resources, and advertising which will have an effect on the educational programs of predominantly Negro colleges.

Ketcham, Warren A. and Patterson, Russell L. TESTING FOR EFFECTIVE EMPLOYMENT AND EQUAL JOB OPPORTUNITY. Unpublished manuscript. n.d. 20 pp.

In order to aid companies in avoiding legal employment problems, and to assure more effective employee placement, this project was aimed at constructing a testing program for specific job categories for Booth Newspapers, Inc. and to establish company norms for the tests. Present employees' test scores were used as standards for hiring future staff. Those tests administered in the experimental testing program which did not significantly relate to the quality of job performance were discarded. A description of the testing program, directions for administering the tests, and a norm table are provided. Tables.

Ketcham, Warren A. TESTING MINROTIY GROUP APPLICANTS. Paper prepared for the University of Michigan Bureau of Industrial Relations Personnel Techniques Seminars. Ann Arbor, Michigan. January 26, 1966. 5 pp.

A discussion of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 is followed by a procedure for establishing a testing program for pre-employment screenings. General ability, achievement, special aptitude, and personality tests are used and rated according to company norms. Performance appraisals establish a relationship between test results and job performance. In addition to the testing program an employer may require that minimum educational and experience standards be met by each applicant. A company may wish to employ a professional psychological testing service when federal laws are involved, rather than to establish the necessary internal personnel and equipment to carry out its equal employment program.

Kiehl, Robert. "Opportunities for Negroes in Engineering." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 103-117.

Presents results of a guidance study conducted to assess opportunities for Negroes in engineering during the years 1955-56 and 1961-62. Statistical data were gathered by questionnaire from industrial and commercial enterprises, Negro engineers, civic and government organizations, and educational and professional institutions. References.

Krug, Robert E. "The Problem of Cultural Bias in Selection: III. Possible Solutions to the Problem of Cultural Bias in Tests." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 77-85.

Discusses two classes of predictors which seem promising in identifying potential managers among a population of new college graduates: biographical information and the situation test. Comments on selection, training, and criteria development. The recruitment and utilization of Negroes by the Peace Corps is presented as a meaningful case history.

Krug, Robert E. "Some Suggested Approaches for Test Development and Measurement." Personnel Psychology, Vol. 19, No. 1, Spring 1966. pp. 24-35.

Differences in test performance of males and females are used to illustrate the predictor-criteria relationship of a test which may or may not possess predictive validity for one of the two groups. The author concludes that a test should neither be used without validating it in its proper situation nor for a group which differs from the validation group on some non-test variable unless the test is revalidated on that group. Furthermore, tests should not be validated on heterogeneous groups. To provide equal employment opportunity is not to treat examinees identically. Test criteria which should be directed toward job performance need not be altered. Instead differential predictors can be chosen to provide "culture-fair" or "culture-equivalent" tests.

Lockwood, Howard C. "Critical Problems in Achieving Equal Employment Opportunity." Personnel Psychology, Vol. 19, No. 1, Spring 1966. pp. 3-10.

Describes some of the actions taken by industry to ameliorate critical problems of the past in providing equal employment opportunity, some of the progress made, and some steps being taken to solve the long range problems ahead. Although greater opportunity now exists, many minority members are poorly prepared educationally and psychologically to accept their new roles. Suggestions are provided for personnel psychologists regarding the testing of minority applicants.

Lockwood, Howard C. (Lockheed Aircraft Corporation). CULTURAL EXPOSURE AND RACE AS VARIABLES IN PREDICTING TRAINING AND JOB SUCCESS. Unpublished manuscript. n.d. 11 pp.

This research proposal is designed to improve the prediction of training and occupational success, to lead to a better identification of the culturally deprived, and to provide insight into cultural differences between and within racial groups. The hypothesis to be tested is that the culturally deprived will perform better on the job or in training than is normally indicated by test scores. "Cultural exposure," the chosen moderator variable, is defined and possible techniques for the validation of test items is presented. Subjects will be found in vocational training situations and will be grouped homogeneously as to cultural exposure.

Lockwood, Howard. "Progress in Plans for Negro Managers." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 1-19.

Discusses objectives and implementation of Plans for Progress, a voluntary action program, drawn up by Lockheed and the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity. Presents statistics on the percentage increases in nonwhite employment and compares occupational distribution in selected Plans for Progress companies. The author describes efforts that remain to be made toward fully achieving equal employment opportunity: motivation of minority youth for opportunities open to them; communication to college officials of the needs of business and industry; and equal educational achievement.

Lockwood, Howard C. "Testing Minority Applicants for Employment." Personnel Journal, Vol. 44, No. 7, July-August 1965, pp. 356-361.

The test as a possible discriminatory instrument is presented in light of the Motorola Case and the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Possible solutions have been proposed: culture-free tests; lower minimum scores for Negroes; separate weighing of scores; and discontinuation of testing. However, these are not feasible to the author. Preferable approaches would be: intensified study of background and motivational differences; better utilization of tests by validation; professional guidance in administration and setting up of tests; realistic minimum scores; maintenance of adequate test administration and record keeping procedures; recognition of compensating variables; encouragement and reconditioning of attitudes.

Lopez, Felix M., Jr. "Current Problems in Test Performance of Job Applicants: I." Personnel Psychology, Vol. 19, No. 1, Spring 1966. pp. 10-18.

Urges that a clinical interpretation of selection tests be based upon relevancy. The question is whether differences in test performance forecast differences in job performance. A single test score is interpreted according to the present situation -- individual, organizational, social and cultural. Achievement of the ultimate criterion of successful placement necessitates using different standards for different subcultural groups. These conclusions are based on a study of selection procedures used in hiring female toll collectors in the New York Port Authority. References.

Lopez, Felix M., Jr. THE INDUSTRIAL SETTING: PROBLEMS AND EXPERIENCES. Paper presented at the New York State Psychological Association Convention. Grossinger's, New York. April 29-May 2, 1965. 10 pp.

The question of the legality of employment tests has finally forced psychometricians to re-examine the basic assumptions underlying personnel selection. Employers can no longer afford to assume that the validity of past mental ability test coefficients will apply to the present. Examples of differences between Negro and white test performance are presented to support the conclusion that scores on aptitude tests may be ineffective in predicting on-the-job success for Negro applicants. The author suggests that we (1) employ a "global" or "analytic" strategy by using a wider spectrum of instruments interpreted in reference to the applicant's background history; (2) experiment with new testing techniques such as situational and performance tests; and (3) revive the employment interview as a powerful tool of selection.

Mallory, Robert. "On-the Job Experiences of Negro Managers." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 131-139.

The author, a native of the Virgin Islands, employed by International Business Machines Corporation, explains how he found being a Negro to be an advantage in the opportunities made available to him. By and large he reports acceptance based on his technical ability.

Mayfield, Harold. "Equal Employment Opportunity: Should Hiring Standards Be Relaxed?" Personnel Magazine, September-October 1964. Reprint from American Management Association, Inc., New York. 10 pp.

The author concludes that properly validated psychological tests are the best predictors of job success currently available and thus should not be discarded as a means of evaluation. Difficulties stand in the way of adjusting tests and other selection standards to the benefit of the underprivileged; little hope is seen for the creation of "culture-free tests." However, steps other than abolishing employment tests can be utilized to insure fairness to the disadvantaged by re-examining and validating job requirements, by educating the entire managerial group to problems of the underprivileged, and by intensifying recruiting efforts.

Roberts, S.O. and Oppenheim, Don B. THE EFFECT OF SPECIAL INSTRUCTION UPON TEST PERFORMANCE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN TENNESSEE. Research Bulletin RB-66-36. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. July 1966. 24 pp.

This study was undertaken to determine the effect of special instruction on students who had received less adequate instruction and who were less able in scholastic aptitude test performance. Specially prepared programed materials to be used in conjunction with classroom instruction were developed in verbal and mathematical areas to aid performance on multiple choice college admission tests. Seven and a half hours of instruction were given volunteer 11th grade students in 18 predominantly Negro high schools. The outcome was generally negative; thus it does not seem reasonable to expect similar short-term instruction to be of significant benefit to disadvantaged students. More prolonged and extensive interaction between the students and the materials is required. References. Tables. Appendices.

Roberts, S.O. "The Problem of Cultural Bias in Selection: II. Ethnic Background and Test Performance." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 65-75.

Assumes that tests provide significantly reliable and valid information for selection of minority group members for business positions. Differences within an ethnic group and programs of intervention which change test differences are considered. Basic to this discussion of test interpretation are normative data, environmental circumstances, and the attitudes of the examinee. The author also examines predicted achievement on the basis of available test results for Negroes and recommends the organization of a central recruiting agency to meet the demands for candidates for professional and managerial positions. References.

Rowe, Richard L. "On-the Job Experiences of Negro Managers." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 125-130.

The author, a Negro employed by the Port of New York Authority, describes the dangers that exist in paternalism by management group towards Negroes on the staff. He draws from a situation in his own experience in which a supervisor's paternalistic attitude, had it not been counteracted, would have placed him in an ineffective position in the organizational structure.

Wallace, Phyllis, Kissinger, Beverly and Reynolds, Betty. TESTING OF MINORITY GROUP APPLICANTS FOR EMPLOYMENT. Research Report 1966-7. Washington, D.C. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Office of Research and Reports. March 1966. 31 pp.

Focuses on inadvertent discrimination through the effects of testing on the culturally disadvantaged, many of whom are Negro. Examines types of tests, how tests discriminate against minority groups, and proposed solutions to the problem of cultural bias in testing. Recommendations are provided as a guide to help employers establish objective selection, screening, and promotion standards. The implications of the study's conclusions are discussed from the viewpoint of the EEOC, private employers, and research psychologists. References. Appendices.

Whitlow, Edward W. "The Placement of Negro College Graduates in Business Organizations." SELECTING AND TRAINING NEGROES FOR MANAGERIAL POSITIONS. Proceedings of The Executive Study Conference. Princeton, N.J. Educational Testing Service. November 10 and 11, 1964. pp. 41-56.

Discusses the relationship between the problems of placement of Negro college graduates in business and their preparation for such placement. Exposure of Negroes to the business world at the high school and college levels has been eliminated in areas where most Negro institutions exist by the mechanisms which are meant to bring about a working relationship between the worlds of education and business: regional college placement associations, company recruitment on college campuses, and adequate counseling. The author makes recommendations for improving the relationship between educational preparation and the needs of business firms.

THE NEGRO AND EMPLOYMENT:
A SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

American Child, "Preferential Hiring for Negroes; a Debate." Vol. 45, Nov. 1963. pp. 1-23.

Debates preferential hiring of Negroes and job quotas. W. Willard Wirtz (Secretary of Labor) in "Toward Equal Opportunity" urges measures to insure fair -- not special -- opportunity for Negroes. For the unqualified Negro he proposes expanded education and training. George Meany (president AFL-CIO) in "Labor's View: Equal for All" stresses the current shortage of jobs for Negroes and whites; full employment is the one permanent answer. Whitney M. Young, Jr. (Executive Director of the National Urban League) in "The Negro Revolt" feels that the present crisis will become worse unless preferential efforts are given to show sizable gains. Edward T. Chase in "Job Quotas and the Merit System" breaks down a number of myths on the sanctity of the merit principle in hiring. Louise Kapp (editor, American Child) in "Industry on Trial" provides a recent inquiry into the attitudes of industry toward preferential hiring.

Amos, William, and Perry, Jane. "Negro Youth and Employment Opportunities." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 32, No. 4, Fall 1963. pp. 358-366.

Discussion of the relationship of unemployment to education, the background of the present imbalance between earnings and employment of whites and nonwhites, compensatory opportunities for education and training of Negro youth, and Negro youth employed in the federal government. Tables.

Antonovsky, Aaron, and Lerner, Melvin J. "Occupational Aspirations of Lower Class Negro and White Youth." Social Problems, Vol. 7, No. 2, Fall 1959. pp. 132-138.

A study of Negro and white youth aged 16-20 in an industrial city in New York state. Both racial groups were from low socio-economic groups, but the Negroes had consistently higher educational and occupational goals. Reasons for this include the emphasis on great professional leaders in the Negro community, discrimination in skilled jobs and business, and the predominance of unsuccessful parents who became negative references. The Negro youth has accepted psychologically inferior status and was driven to succeed. Negro parents help push their children to succeed.

Ausubel, David P., and Ausubel, Pearl. "Ego Development Among Segregated Negro Children." Education in Depressed Areas, Ed. by Harry Passow. New York. Columbia University Teachers College Press. 1965. pp. 109-141.

Discusses the personality development of segregated Negro children as a special variant of the more typical course of ego development in our culture. Education must help the Negro child to fill the new and more desirable place in American society that technological changes and his elders' aspirations for equality are creating for him.

Avins, Alfred. "Weapons Against Discrimination in Public Office." Syracuse Law Review, Vol. 14, Fall 1962. pp. 24-41.

Discussion centers on elected and appointed officials, especially in New York. Concludes that the New York anti-discrimination law clearly includes public employees, although they are not specifically mentioned. Includes fairly detailed discussion of the "public official" as an "employee."

Back, Kurt, and Simpson, Ida H. "The Dilemma of the Negro Professional." Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 20, No. 2, 1964. pp. 60-70.

The pattern of response to the position of the Negro professional, who is at once in a favored (professional) and a disfavored (Negro) minority is analyzed. Census data show that Negroes tend to cluster in 'protected' professions in the South; however, outside the South differences in distribution among professions cannot be explained in this way. To investigate this matter a group of Negro medical students were studied; their previous experiences and career plans are analyzed.

Bacon, Emery F. "Race Relations in an Industrial Society." Race, Vol. 4, No. 2, May 1963. pp. 32-38.

Grievance procedures became the principal vehicle for maintaining job equity for the Negro. The types of grievances that Negroes filed are discussed. Although discrimination is rampant, the following reasons are given for the relatively few charges that are filed (1) many Negroes do not know that FEP laws exist; (2) years of non-employment discourages many from applying for jobs; (3) and Negroes as a rule do not like to undergo internal company pressures.

Batchelder, Alan B. "Economic Forces Serving the Ends of the Negro Protest." Annals of the American Academy of Polical and Social Science, Vol. 357, Jan. 1965.

Points out the dependency of the Negro protest on the existence of favorable economic forces. During the fifties technological changes caused high unemployment among Negroes, but in the future, high employment-business stability will create an economic environment favoring nondiscriminatory use of Negro potential.

Becker, William E. "After FEPC -- What?" Journal of Intergroup Relations, Vol. 3, No. 4, Aug. 1962. pp. 337-343.

This article claims that the ratio of unemployed nonwhite workers to white workers is 2:1, and will increase with automation. New measures are needed to achieve fair employment practices. Recommendations are made for the federal government to consider in implementing its FEP programs.

Becker, Gary S. The Economics of Discrimination. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1957, 137 pp.

Develops a theoretical framework for analyzing discrimination in the market place because of race, religion, sex, color, or other non-pecuniary considerations. Gives major emphasis to discrimination in employment, although consumer discrimination is also considered. Applies the theory in interpreting census and other statistical data on the relative economic position of Negroes and on how it has changed over time.

Blalock, H.M. "Educational Achievement and Job Opportunities: A Vicious Circle," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 27, No. 4, Fall 1958, pp. 253-262.

Negro youths are caught in a vicious circle in which poor jobs cause a lack of incentive which leads to poor training and more poor jobs. Some factors which contribute to this circle are the favoritism of teachers in the schools, discrimination against Negroes by peers, and the differences in the subcultures of the Negro and white students. Community groups could be organized to talk to employers, school counselors, school children, and parents and help get jobs for Negro youths. Particular attention should be paid to the most talented Negro students.

Bloch, Herman D. "Some Economic Effects of Discrimination in Employment." The American Journal of Economics and Sociology, Vol. 25, No. 1, Jan. 1966. pp. 11-24.

Discussion of job and occupational mobility, income, security and standards of living; Negro attitudes toward job restrictions, and how these restrictions reinforce the white man's stereotype of the Negro even in this generation. Tables, References.

Bloch, Herman D. "Discrimination Against the Negro in Employment in New York, 1920-1963," The American Journal of Economics and Sociology, Vol. 24, Oct. 1965. pp. 361-382.

"Each class and each strata or group of each class in America has had, at one time or another, and to one degree or another, to face economic restrictions and difficulties in the process of achieving its social betterment. But the Negro American has the dubious honor of having had the longest period of economic restrictions imposed on him with the least to show for the time and effort he has expended in the struggle for his social improvement."

Bloom, R., Whiteman, M., and Deutsch, M., "Race and Social Class as Separate Factors Related to Social Environment," Paper read at the American Psychological Association meeting, Philadelphia, Sept. 1963.

This study attempted to separate the variables of race and social class in determining social environment. The sample consisted of

292 pairs of parents and first- and fifth-grade children with similar proportions of Negroes and whites in three social class levels. Personal interviews with the children and questionnaires from the parents supplied the data. Dependent variables measured were housing conditions, aspirations, mobility, family life, and conditions. Where race and social class were independent, Negroes reported a higher educational and occupational aspiration for their children. The Negro children themselves aspired to higher occupations than the white children.

Blum, Albert A., and Schmidt, Charles T., Jr. "Securing Skills Needed for Success: Community Job Training for Negroes," Management of Personnel Quarterly, Vol. 5, No. 3, Fall 1966. pp. 30-35.

Surveys the present status of efforts made to encourage and administer programs of job training by human relations commissions, school systems, colleges and universities, unions, and business organizations.

Blum, Al, and Schmidt, Charles, Jr. "Job Training Through Adult Education," *Employment, Race and Poverty*, Ed. by Arthur M. Ross and Herbert Hill. New York, Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1967. pp. 460-478.

Points to the necessity of providing the adult Negro with education in increase his employability and motivation of his children to learn. Activities of Detroit human relations commissions, *ad hoc* organizations, civil rights groups, churches, block clubs, unions, businesses, and educational institutions are examined to determine what is being done to provide adult educational opportunities for the disadvantaged Negro with the conclusion that very little is being done at this time.

Brazziel, William F., Jr. "Occupational Choice in the Negro College," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, Vol. 39, No. 9, 1960. pp. 739-742.

The data for this study came from questionnaires given to Negro sophomores and seniors in the College of Education at Southern University. Most students decided to get teacher training during high school, and parents and teachers were most influential in the making of this decision. Teaching was a second choice for more than half of the students, and almost half planned to enter another field after graduation. Many students chose teaching because it was a sure job, or because it was easy to qualify for training.

Brazziel, William F., Jr. "Curriculum Choice in the Negro College," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 29, No. 2, Spring 1960. pp. 207-209.

More than 70 percent of all Negro college students train to become teachers, and many of them find it hard to get jobs. Many Negro students are hindered in their exploration of jobs because of narrow backgrounds, insufficient occupational information and a submissive attitude. These students are forced to make vocational decisions too early in life. High schools should develop better academic curricula and better vocational counseling. Negro students need more self-direction, personal pride and desire for achievement.

Brazziel, William F., Jr. "Meeting the Psychological Crises of Negro Youth Through a Coordinated Guidance Service." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 27, No. 1, Winter 1958. pp. 79-83.

Guidance services for Negroes in the South are poor, or non-existant. A coordinated system of guidance services, including personal inventory, information and orientation, professional counseling placement and follow-up, is needed to help these students both during and after school.

Broom, Leonard, and Glen, Norval D. Transformation of the Negro American, New York, Harper and Row, 1965. 207 pp.

The first four chapters trace the emergence of the major themes in the adjustment of Negro Americans to subordination: compliance, adaptation, self-improvement and gradualism, Negro nationalism, and increasingly overt pressure for integration. These several themes are expressed as shifts in emphasis rather than as evolution through clearly defined stages. The next four chapters take a hard look at the data about the condition of Negroes. They show how much progress has been made, where the Negro stands and what the remaining gaps are between Negro and white in the spheres of education, income, and occupation.

Buggs, John A. "Report from Los Angeles." The Journal of Intergroup Relations, Autumn 1966. pp. 27-40.

A four part discussion: an examination of the socio-economic characteristics of the riot area; the anatomy of the riot; what intergroup relations and civil rights agencies might have done to prevent or contain the trouble; and recommendations for dealing with the situation now existing in the community.

Bullock, Paul. "Combating Discrimination in Employment." California Management Review, Vol. 3, Summer 1961. pp. 18-32.

Stresses the economic necessity for merit employment, examines problem areas and techniques used to combat discrimination, and comments on responsibilities of managers in this field.

Bureau of National Affairs, Inc. Survey No. 77. The Negro and Title VII. Washington. Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1965. 17 pp.

Based on replies received from a questionnaire sent to personnel and industrial relations executives who make up BNA's Personnel Policies Forum to find out the practices in their companies regarding the recruitment, selection, placement, training, and development of Negroes. A plan for progress is outlined. Tables.

Butcher, Goler T. State Laws Dealing with Non-Discrimination in Employment. Washington, U.S. Library of Congress, Legislative Reference Service. July 24, 1963.

State statutory provisions, ordinances and regulations of municipalities, chart abstracts of state statutes, state fair employment practices laws, fair employment practices enforcement provisions.

Carl, E. L., and Callahan, K.R. "Negroes and the Law." Journal of Legal Education, Vol. 17, No. 3, 1964-65. pp. 250-271.

Discusses the great need to increase the number of Negro lawyers. Strong motivation, satisfactory qualifications, and likelihood of professional opportunity have in the past militated against attraction of Negro students to the law.

Carper, Laura. "The Negro Family and the Moynihan Report." Dissent, Mar.-April 1966. pp. 133-140.

Begins by examining recent sociological thought. The Moynihan report calls for new policies to help establish a stable Negro family structure. The problems presented by the Negro matriarchial family situation are discussed. The real social problem is whether room can be made for the poor to acquire social and economic power.

Clark, Kenneth B. Dark Ghetto: Dilemmas of Social Power, New York, Harper and Row, 1965. 240 pp.

An analysis of the political, religious, economic and intellectual power structure of the ghetto. Discusses various strategies to bring about change, the psychology and pathology of the ghetto, and the deterioration of its human resources. The author attempts to describe and interpret what happens to the ghetto people whose access to the normal channels of economic mobility and opportunity are blocked.

Clark, Kenneth B. Social and Economic Implications of Integrating in the Public Schools, Seminars on Manpower Policy and Programs sponsored by the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training. Nov. 1965. 22 pp.

Proceedings of a seminar which examines the complex social and economic problems which arise from the deterioration of the quality of Negro education in northern urban centers.

Cowhig, James D., and Beale, Calvin L. "Socio-economic Differences Between White and Non-white Farm Populations in the South." Social Forces, Vol. 42, No. 3, Mar. 1964. pp. 354-362.

The data are used to compare the socio-economic status of white and nonwhite farm populations of 14 southern states in 1950 and 1960. Indicators of socio-economic status are farm operator level-of-living index, measures of income, educational attainment, and housing. Indicators show improvement for whites and non-whites over the decade. Socio-economic differences have widened over the period.

Cowhig, James D., and Beale, Calvin L. "Relative Socio-economic Status of Southern Whites and Nonwhites, 1950 and 1960." Southwestern Social Science Quarterly, Sept. 1964. pp. 113-124.

A study of the general deterioration of relative white-nonwhite socio-economic status (SES) of Southerners between 1950 and 1960. Patterns of change varied widely by residence (farm, rural nonfarm, and urban) in the four measures of SES: economic, educational, geographic, and housing. Data derived from the Censuses of Population and Housing. Tables, references.

Daniel, Walter G. "The Relative Employment and Income of American Negroes," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 32, No. 4, Fall 1963. pp. 349-357.

Findings and conclusions based on data obtained since 1950 on the progress of Negroes in employment and income status. Discusses the shift from agricultural occupations, major labor force comparisons, continued occupational inequality, comparisons of income data, and relative employment and unemployment of whites and nonwhites. Tables.

Davis, John P. The American Negro Reference Book. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1966. 969 pp.

"The purpose of the American Negro Reference Book is to bring together in a single volume a reliable summary of current information on the main aspects of Negro life in America, and to present this information in sufficient historical depth to provide the reader with a true perspective." References.

Deutsch, M., and Brown, B. "Social Influences in Negro-White Intelligence Differences." Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 20, No. 2, 1964. pp. 24-35.

Investigates some factors which influence the development of intellectual functioning in children. Study based on 543 urban children stratified by race, social class, and grade level (1st and 5th). Mean IQ was significantly higher for white than for Negro groups at each socio-economic level. Children in father-absent homes scored significantly lower as compared to children in intact familes, using SESI and SES II only. This finding is more marked at the 5th grade level than at the 1st grade level. The author concludes that deprivational influences have greater effect on later developmental stages than on earlier ones.

Diamond, Daniel E. "Negroes and the Service Industries." Challenge, Vol. 13, Dec. 1964. pp. 33-35.

"The importance of service employment for Negroes has increased modestly during this century. Their gains have been largely absolute rather than relative. They have shared with white workers in the shift to service jobs, but there has been little narrowing of the disparity that existed in 1910."

Doroit, Georges F., Ed. The Management of Racial Integration in Business. New York, McGraw-Hill Co. 1964. 147 pp.

A study which arose from the conviction that a relatively small sample of American businesses had dealt firsthand with the forces of integration, and that even these few pioneering companies had not yet experienced their full force. By examining published materials and interviewing corporate officials and line workers, the authors have attempted to provide a guide to enable a company which has decided to embark on a more active integration program to avoid some of the major pitfalls.

Drake, St. Clair, "Recent Trends in Research on the Negro in the United States." International Social Science Bulletin, Vol. 9, No. 4, 1957. pp. 475-494.

Since 1944 a large part of social science research on the Negro has been basic research. There has also been a recent emphasis on methods for replacing discrimination with integration by using social management. Research on the Negro in the armed forces, the Negro in industry and Negro-white housing has shown the importance of the power structure, of Negro training and education, and of equal Negro and white status, to integration. Intergroup relations techniques and self-survey techniques are being studied as ways of reducing discrimination.

Drake, St. Clair. "The Social and Economic Status of the Negro in the United States." Daedalus, Fall 1965. pp. 771-814.

Discussion of cast, class and 'victimization' the ghettoization of Negro life; folkways and classways within the 'black ghetto,' for the Negro lower, middle, and upper classes; social implications of the job ceiling and income gap; and an analysis of morbidity, mortality and longevity rates of whites and nonwhites. Also included is a discussion of the identification problems of Negroes, the psychological effects of being 'powerless' the myth of 'separate but equal,' and some paradoxes of the Negroes progress. References.

Dunkelberger, John E. Attitude Toward Occupational Change as an Indicator of Prospects for Adjustment. Paper presented at the Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology Section, Association of Southern Agricultural Workers. Atlanta. Feb. 4, 1964. 16 pp.

Discusses the social and psychological characteristics of men with differing intensities of occupational ambition. Social characteristics of the sample include: demographic characteristics of age, education, color, and residence which were related statistically to attitudes toward job change.

Edmondson, M.S. "Industry and Race in the Southern U.S." Industrialization and Race Relations. A Symposium, Ed. by Guy Hunter. New York, Oxford University Press, 1965.

"The limited flexibility of the Southern economy and the broadening horizons of the Southern population, white and Negro, make it inevitable that aspirations will continue to outstrip achievements, possibly in increasing measure. The major changes to date in the relationship between the races have largely isolated and symbolically significant tokens rather than substantial or revolutionary innovations. Southerners of both races want something better soon, but it is not yet clear that the economy, the policy, or the general social system of the United States will be able to provide it for them. If they do not, we must expect continued turbulence and recurrent crises in the social development of the South as on a broad and shifting front."

Fein, Rashi. "An Economic and Social Profile of the Negro American." Daedalus, Fall 1965. pp. 815-846.

An analysis of a variety of socio-economic indicators of white and nonwhite social and economic status measured by time-lag statistics. How much earlier did the white American attain the level of health, education, housing, income, etc., that the Negro has reached today? Tables, references.

Foley, Eugene P. "The Negro Businessman: In Search of a Tradition." Daedalus, Vol. 95, Winter 1966. pp. 107-144.

An examination of why Negro business has not developed in America, with suggestions of steps that are most needed to encourage future development. Tables.

Friedland, Louis L. "Fair Employment Practices in the Public Service," Public Personnel Review, Vol. 23, April, 1962. pp. 109-113.

Discussion of federal, state and local minority group employment and the relationship between civil service commissions and fair employment practice agencies.

Geschwender, James A. "Social Structure and the Negro Revolt: an Examination of Some Hypotheses." Social Forces, Vol. 43, Dec. 1964. pp. 248-256.

"An attempt is made to examine objective structural conditions in order to provide a sociological interpretation of the current Negro revolt. The sociological literature is examined and five structural hypotheses are derived. Data on the changing position of the nonwhite in the United States are examined. Nonwhites are found to be improving their position in terms of level of education, type of occupation, and amount of income. They are found to be improving their position relative to whites in level of education and in holding middle status occupations but not upper status occupations. They are falling further behind whites in income."

Gibbs, Jack P. "Occupational Differentiation of Negroes and Whites in the United States." Social Forces, Vol. 44, Dec. 1965. pp. 159-165.

Data on the occupational differentiation of Negroes and whites in each of the United States as of 1960. The measures of occupational differentiation reveal considerable differences among the states. The article evaluates some commonly held beliefs concerning race relations in terms of their consistency with variation in measures of occupational differentiation. Tables, references.

Ginzberg, Eli. The Negro Potential. New York, Columbia University Press, 1956. 144 pp.

Analyzes the census figures on employment by race and occupational categories to show the gains in occupational status of Negroes between 1940 and 1950. Summarizes the disadvantages with respect to job opportunity and income potentiality that beset the Negro. Discussion of educational opportunities and disabilities. Experience of Negroes in the armed forces is also included.

Ginzberg, Eli. "Segregation and Manpower Waste." Phylon, Vol. 21, No. 4, 1960. pp. 311-316.

Negro children in the South learn to take a negative attitude toward work from their parents. Negroes in Southern schools do not get adequate education, socialization or vocational training. The more talented and ambitious are forced into one of a few advanced jobs. Excess unskilled labor permits continued discrimination and causes many Negroes to emigrate. The South is wasting valuable resources in segregation policies, and must make use of its Negro manpower or lag behind the rest of the nation.

Ginzberg, Eli. The Negro Challenge to the Business Community. New York, McGraw-Hill. 1964. 111 pp.

Presents the highlights of a conference held at Arden House on January 15 to 17, 1964, under the auspices of the Executive Program of the Graduate School of Business, Columbia University. The primary objective of the conference was educational. The large number of corporations that sent representatives confirmed the sponsors' conviction that it would be constructive for leaders of the business community to have an opportunity to gain new perspective on the aspirations and actions of Negroes as they seek to participate more fully in the economy and society. The formal presentations that constitute the heart of this volume were an attempt to provide this perspective.

Glazer, Nathan, and Moynihan, Daniel P. Beyond the Melting Pot. Cambridge, MIT Press and Harvard University Press. 1963. 85 pp.

A sociologist and political scientist examines the talents, flaws, triumphs, and failings of Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Jews, Italians, and Irish in New York City. They discuss different levels of achievements of the five groups in education, business, and politics.

Glenn, Norval D. "Occupational Benefits to Whites from the Subordination of Negroes." American Sociological Review, Vol. 28, No. 2, June 1963. pp. 443-448.

The hypothesis that white occcpational status varies directly with the relative size of the Negro population was tested. This hypothesis was tested with employed non-agricultural workers in 151 standard metropolitan areas that had 100,000 or more population in 1950, and was confirmed. The study concluded that whites do benefit occupationally from Negroes being kept low in the occupational structure and that this benefit is in large measure responsible for the perpetuation of anti-Negro discrimination.

Glenn, Norval D. "The Relative Size of the Negro Population and Negro Occupational Status." Social Forces, Vol. 43, No. 1, Oct. 1964. pp. 42-49.

The hypothesis that the relative size of the Negro population and Negro occupational status are inversely related was not supported by a study of the populations of 151 standard metropolitan areas that had 100,000 or more people in 1950. Instead the occupational status of Negro males was almost constant from one extreme to the other of the scale of percent of Negroes. However, smaller Negro representation in white collar occupations existed in areas of high Negro population density. The greater Negro representation in upper manual work in these areas apparently resulted from 'overflow' (where Negroes are a large percent of the labor force there are not enough whites to fill most of the intermediate level jobs.) Thus, Negroes tend to 'overflow' into intermediate level occupations.

Glen, Norval D. "Some Changes in the Relative Status of American Nonwhites, 1940 to 1960." Phylon, Vol. 24, No. 2, Summer 1963.

This article traces the trend in income occupation, education, and unemployment rate of nonwhites against whites during and after World War II. If present trends continue, nonwhites will approach whites first in educational status, next in occupational status, and much later in income status.

Grier, Eunice S. In Search of A Future. Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies. July 1963. 24 pp.

A study of career-seeking experiences of selected Negro high school graduates in Washington which was an effort to provide knowledge helpful in solving one of the most critical problems facing urban America today.

Grier, George, and Grier, Eunice. Equality and Beyond. Chicago, Quadrangle Books, Inc. 1966. 115 pp.

An examination of racial segregation in light of economic, governmental, and civic policies and practices.

Habbe, Stephen. "Chief Executives View Negro Employment." The Conference Board Record, Vol. 2, No. 5, May 1965. pp. 30-33.

Evaluates how management regards Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Interviews were held with the chief executives of 40 companies concerning the subject of Negro employment. The questions covered the following areas: the dimension of the problem, the role of the chief executive in providing equal employment, Negro militancy, the Negro as a responsible citizen, opinion on the Civil Rights Act, local custom affecting race relations, and attitudes about future proceedings. One theme appeared time and again: "The law can go only so far; the best and final way to progress is the way of voluntary, affirmative action by companies in all areas of the nation."

Harlem Youth Opportunities Unlimited, Inc. Youth in the Ghetto. New York, HARYOU, 1964. 620 pp.

A study of the development of a comprehensive plan for the youth of Harlem and an analysis of the pathology of the ghetto. Each of the programs is oriented towards serving special problems; but, as an integrated whole, programs in education, employment, and family and community life can be seen as specific modalities of cultural reintegration. The volume includes material on the Harlem community (demographic characteristics, community pathologies, education, employment patterns and opportunities, and voluntary social services), designs for change, and special and interdependent programs. Culture building programs are intended to provide a tradition of effective social participation and constructive methods of ego satisfaction. The training of indigenous workers is an integral part of the plan.

Harrington, Michael. "The Economics of Racism." Commonweal, July 7, 1961. 6 pp.

This paper is concerned with the consequences of deep-rooted racism in the U.S. Transformations of some of the basic institutions of the society are needed. No matter what economic facts are cited, the Negro is still at the bottom. The occupational structure of the Negro community is partially the inheritance of the past. Some effects of automation are discussed. A more conscious racism is found in a situation where few Negroes are apprentices. It is also evidenced by the fact that educated Negroes receive less pay than their white counterparts. The Negro professional is confined to the Negro world. The problem of the Negro is the problem of institutionalized poverty.

Harrington, Michael. "Economics for the Minority." Agenda, Vol. 1, No. 8, Sept. 1965. pp. 18-21.

This article outlines the basic historic and economic reasons for Negro poverty. Ways to get to the underlying economic causes are: extend minimum wage to the working poor and create more jobs. National economic planning and massive social investments are required if the Negro is to be given a real chance to escape poverty.

Harrison, E. C. "Achievement Motivation Characteristics of Negro College Freshmen." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 38, No. 2, Oct. 1959. pp. 146-149.

Questionnaires were given to 716 Negro college freshmen of both sexes from working class backgrounds to determine their willingness to make sacrifices in order to get desirable jobs. More than half were willing to leave their friends or to leave their home town, but only one-fifth would leave their families. More than half would study for a long period, but less than half would take a job which required work experience at low pay. Only one-third would give up the freedom to express their views on religion, politics, or race, only one-third would postpone marriage, and very few would take a job of which one or both parents disapproved. These students should learn to stress independence and should gain experience which will help them to discover and develop job potential.

Hart, Joe W. "Effects of Automation on the Position of Negroes in a Southern Industrial Plant." Journal of Human Relations, Vol. 12, No. 3, 1964. pp. 419-421.

200 depth interviews were obtained from production workers. Negro workers improved their work situation in recent years; further progress is unlikely because of (1) labor slowdowns and (2) success of unions' demands for job reclassification seems to be dependent upon the reclassification not being tied to the race issue.

Hart, Joe W. "A Study of the Effects of Efforts to Improve Employment Opportunities of Negroes on the Utilization of Negro Workers." Journal of Human Relations, Vol. 12, No. 3, 1964. pp. 421-423.

Managers were interviewed to determine the effects of efforts to improve employment opportunities of Negroes on the utilization of Negro workers in a large Southern city. Employment situations for Negroes were worse in establishments: (1) located downtown; (2) with out-of-town business; (3) which use females to fill the kind of jobs common in the business; (4) which are members of national or regional chains; (5) that are not family owned and operated; (6) that are pressured by strong labor unions; and (7) that have jobs with extensive employee-customer contact.

Hauser, Philip M. "Demographic Factors in the Integration of the Negro." Daedalus, Fall 1965. pp. 847-877.

Highlights in the population history of the Negro American are considered as background for a discussion of their implications for integration: continued Negro migration to urban areas; natural increase of Negro populations in metropolitan communities; high birth rates in relation to education, training, and family income; family disorganization and age structure, and trends in school enrollment. The implications of the analysis for policy and programs designed to hasten integration are summarized.

Hechinger, Fred M. "Preferential Treatment for Negroes?" The Reporter, December 3, 1964. pp. 22-24.

A plea for massive preferential treatment for Negro children in primary and secondary schools with the aim that such treatment will be unnecessary later. Both faculty and students in Negro and predominantly Negro colleges in the nation share a background of inferior segregated public schools. Preferential treatment in employment could reinforce ideas of Negro inferiority and intensify the bitterness of those who are slighted.

Henderson, Vivian. "The Economic Imbalance: An Inquiry into the Economic Status of Negroes in the United States, 1935-1960, with Implications for Negro Education." Quarterly Review of Education Among Negroes, Vol. 28, No. 2, April 1960. pp. 84-98.

Negroes improved their economic position greatly between 1935 and 1960, but they are still at a disadvantage when compared to whites. The Negroes' greatest improvement has been, and will continue to be, in income level. Negro migration, technological change and competition from whites have affected the Negroes' employment and income level. Education will help the Negro worker to make the most satisfactory adjustment to all these factors, particularly in the modern economy. Education must help Negroes to read, write, compute, measure and use good judgement so that they will be prepared for the labor demands of the future.

Henderson, Vivian. The Economic Status of Negroes: In the Nation and In the South. Atlanta, Southern Regional Council. Pamphlet No. 3 in the "Toward Regional Realism" Series. 1963. 23 pp.

The South and the Negro remain the most depressed segments of the economy and the population. Negroes have become more urbanized than whites; however, in the South, Negro gain has been slight, occurring at a decreasing rate. The ability of the Negro to pass from poverty to equality depends upon removing the barriers to employment and occupational mobility, providing better education through increased school desegregation, and providing improvements in the process of Negro manpower development, with public policy playing an increasingly vital role.

Hentoff, Nat. The New Equality, New York, The Viking Press, Inc. 1964, 1965. 246 pp.

Basic social and economic change is essential if there is to be a "new equality." A redistribution of power is needed. Organized change throughout the society cannot be accomplished by Negroes alone, but it will not be set in motion without Negro impetus. Some degree of preferential treatment is considered both possible and necessary, so long as the larger goal is not obscured.

Herson, Phyllis F. "Some Personal and Sociological Variables Associated with Occupational Choices of Negro Youth." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 34, No. 2, Spring 1965. pp. 147-151.

Negro youth aspire to high level occupations but do not have specific knowledge nor the value orientations necessary to realize their ambitions. Counseling programs must be adapted to meet specific needs of Negro youth in a time of expanding job opportunity.

Hess, Robert D. "Educability and Rehabilitation, the Future of the Welfare Class." Journal of Marriage and the Family, Nov. 1964. pp. 422-429.

Behavior leading to social, educational, and economic poverty is learned in childhood. A long-range program of intervention must deal with the children of welfare families. Present welfare policies are designed not to eliminate poverty but to institutionalize it. The group studied included 160 nonworking Negro mothers with no obvious mental or physical disabilities and their 4-year-old children. Some of the differences between middle- and working-class children found were: curiosity and initiative essential to learning situations and participation in society are lacking in the working-class home and the teaching styles of the working-class mothers seem to be socializing a passive attitude toward learning.

Hiestand, Dale L. Economic Growth and Employment Opportunities for Minorities. New York, Columbia University Press, 1964. 127 pp.

Examines selected aspects of the relationship between the changing employment patterns of minority groups and the growth of the economy. Considers primarily Negroes, both men and women. Also includes the role of white women in the labor force.

Hill, Herbert, "Twenty Years of State Fair Employment Practice Commissions: A Critical Analysis with Recommendations." Buffalo Law Review, Vol. 14, No. 1, Fall 1964. pp. 22-69.

Paper delivered at a conference on "Equal Opportunity in Employment." Traces the activities of state fair employment practice commissions during the past 20 years, and concludes that they have failed to deal effectively with the problems of Negro labor. The following recommendations are made: (1) greater use of given powers; (2) affirmative action based upon pattern-centered approaches instead of the individual complaint procedure, (3) drastic reduction in the number of rejected complaints, (4) public disclosure of base for settlements and (5) expanded availability of commission facilities. References.

Hill, Herbert. Testimony before the New York City Commission on Human Rights, Construction Trades Hearing. September 26, 1966.

This testimony presents a profile of Negroes' current position in the building and construction trades in New York City. Formal and informal practices which prevent Negroes from becoming skilled craft workers are described. Some background labor force data are included, along with more specific information about particular locals. Relevant local, state, and national laws, executive orders, and court decisions are noted as well as the effects of the failure to enforce them.

Hill, Herbert. "The Role of Law in Securing Equal Employment Opportunity: Legal Powers and Social Change." Boston College Industrial and Commercial Law Review, Vol. 7, No. 3, Spring 1966. pp. 625-652.

This article reviews the court decisions of the past twenty-five years which pertain to racial discrimination by labor unions in bargaining practices and membership policies. Relationships are shown between judicial precedents and recent administrative actions by the NLRB. A description is given of the legal and constitutional rights of Negro workers in the job market.

Hill, Herbert. Planning the End of the American Ghetto: A Program of Economic Development for Equal Rights. NAACP, 1966, 23 pp.

Equal opportunity is useless as long as it means access to substandard housing, second-class schools, and long-term unemployment and menial jobs. Hill presents a discussion of the economic costs of the ghetto in extra payments for public services and welfare expenses. Inferior education decreases occupational competence and earning capability. Racial discrimination further reduces the earning power of ghetto dwellers. Major income loss is traced to under-employment and non-employment. The program to end the ghetto includes recommendations concerning housing, rehabilitative centers, job creation, vocational and apprenticeship training, and health care. The financing and implementation of this program are discussed. Bibliography, Tables, Appendix.

Hill, Herbert. "Racial Inequality in Employment: The Patterns of Discrimination." Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol 357, Jan. 1965. pp. 39-47.

An examination of the unemployment crisis of Negroes in terms of their position in the South, effects of automation, relationship to state employment services, federal support of discrimination through apprenticeship programs and vocational training, and racial practices of organized labor. It is necessary that changes take place in job opportunities and in the mobility of the Negro.

Hill, Herbert. "Labor Unions and the Negro." Commentary, Vol. 28, Dec. 1959. pp. 479-488.

This article traces the history of racial discrimination and racial exclusion in the American labor movement during the twentieth century. The respective positions of the AFL and the CIO are described, as well as the early history of their merger. Mention is made of several obstacles that have faced Negroes in their effort to gain equal access to labor unions.

Himes, Joseph S. "Some Work Related Cultural Deprivations of Lower-Class Negro Youths." Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol. 26, Nov. 1964. pp. 447-449.

"Work-related cultural deprivations of lower-class Negro youth are considered to include both judgmental and realistic dimensions, influencing respectively both their acceptance and their performance as workers. Exclusion of lower-class Negroes from the work force leaves them without relevant work models, separated from the work ethos, and alienated from job ways, thus perpetuating realistic as well as judgemental deprivation.

Hope, John II, and Shelton, Edward E. "The Negro in the Federal Government." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 32, No. 4, Fall 1963. pp. 367-374.

Discussion of whether Negroes can get and hold federal jobs in the entrance and trainee categories from which they can progress on the basis of performance into journeyman grades. Surveys current growth patterns of Negroes in federal employment by grade and salary groups, and traces the history of Negro employment in the federal government since 1881. Tables.

Hope, John. "Central Role of Intergroup Agencies in the Labor Market: Changing Research and Personnel Requirements." Journal of Intergroup Relations, Vol. 2, No. 2, Spring 1961. pp. 132-144.

Intergroup agencies in the manpower field attempt to eliminate economically irrelevent factors in the hiring of minority group workers, and can supplement the work of public antidiscrimination commissions. Other agencies should handle problems of inadequate training and education in minority groups. While the emphasis has been on protecting the rights of the individual, equal employment would be achieved more rapidly on the basis of improving the national economy. Intergroup agencies should realize that there are problems of anti-minority discrimination in employment during both recessions and periods of prosperity. These agencies and other agencies concerned with manpower problems must use research to clarify the problems.

Huych, Earl E., M.D. "Highlights of White-Nonwhite Differentials." Health, Education and Welfare Indicators. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office. Feb.-Oct. 1965. pp. 3-5.

Basic information on white-nonwhite differentials in areas of health, education, and welfare. Statistical data is useful in measuring where and how much progress has occurred in the field of civil rights. Of total households in 1960, 12 persent of white households and 37 percent of nonwhite households had a 1959 family income of less than $3,000; 43 percent of white households and only 15 percent of nonwhite households had a family income of $7,000 or more. Tables. Charts, References, Photographs.

Johnson, Thelma. "Tapping the Negro Potential." Institute of Applied Psychology Review, Vol. 5, Spring 1965. pp. 64-72.

". . . discusses current American industrial hiring and promotion practices as they are applied to Negroes. Contrasts these practices with the avowed theoretical policies of equal opportunity and shows how unrecognized factors tip the scales in favor of Caucasian employees."

[illegible]

Kahn, Tom. The Economics of Equality. New York, League for Industrial Democracy. 1964. 70 pp.

An analysis of the Negro struggle for economic equality and proposals for a political strategy and an economic program for the civil rights movement. The civil rights movement is urged to attack the broad social and economic problems of the total society rather than restricting itself to problems of racial segregation; an alliance is needed to build a political movement dedicated to equality, social justice, and economic reconstruction.

Katz, Irwin. "Review of Evidence Relating to Effects of Desegregation on the Intellectual Performance of Negroes." Education and the Metropolis, Ed. by Harry L. Miller and Marjorie B. Smiley. New York, Hunter College, City University of New York. 1964. pp. 373-391.

This article from the American Psychologist, June 1964, focuses on the problem of identifying the important situational determinants of Negro performance in the racially mixed classroom. The implications of the findings of this study on educational practice are outlined. References.

Keller, Suzanne. "The Social World of the Urban Slum Child: Some Early Findings." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 33, 1963. pp. 823-831.

Compares selected aspects of after-school and home activities of a sample of poor Negro and Caucasian children in first and fifth grades. These children, classified as upper-lower class, were tested and their parents given questionnaires; one-fifth of the families were interviewed in their homes. In a comparison of Negroes and whites it was found that lower-class Negro children came from larger families, and fewer of these children were supported by their fathers' earnings. Three times as many Negro children lived in families where the adults were currently unemployed and receiving welfare or aid. In both groups mothers were more educated than fathers. Negro parents were geographically more mobile than whites, but less mobile occupationally. Fifth-grade Negro children showed more negative self-evaluation than white children.

Kessler, Matthew A. "Economic Status of Nonwhite Workers, 1955-1962." Special Labor Force Report, No. 33. Monthly Labor Review, July 1963. pp. 780-793.

An analysis of the economic status of nonwhite workers, 90 percent of whom are Negroes, from 1955-62. Focuses on industry and occupation changes, manpower utilization, and income and education. Non whites continue to be concentrated in less skilled jobs, and whatever the industry or occupation, unemployment bears disproportionately on this group. Recent income data by color and educational attainment of the head of the family indicate that this income gap between whites and nonwhites is not closed even when educational levels of both groups increase. Tables, References.

Kifer, Allen. "Changing Patterns of Negro Employment. " Industrial Relations, Vol. 3, No. 3, May 1964. pp. 23-36.

Changes in the Negro employment patterns from pre-Civil War to post-World War II are traced. Though the skills gained during the war and the passage of fair employment acts help remedy the previous situation, the Negro economic position remains insecure.

Killingsworth, Charles C. "Negroes in a Changing Labor Market." Employment, Race and Poverty, ed. by Arthur M. Ross, New York. Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. 1967. pp. 49-75.

An analysis of the Negro unemployment problem and the present distribution of Negro disadvantage in the labor market. The overall Negro unemployment rate has shown a pronounced upward trend since the early 1950's. A program of job creation appears to be the only short run answer to Negro unemployment.

Lang, Gladys Engel. "Discrimination in the Hiring Hall: A Case Study of Pressures to Promote Integration in New York's Brewery Industry." Discrimination and Low Incomes. Ed. by Aaron Antonovsky and Louis Lorwin. New York, New York State Commission Against Discrimination. 1959, pp. 195-247.

Since 1885 the brewery workers' unions have kept control of the industry's labor market in New York City, and this culminated in a contract in 1949 which limited seniority to workers already having experience. The New York State Commission Against Discrimination moved to formalize the hiring procedures in the union hiring halls so that discrimination would be eliminated. The results of these reforms are only fair because there are still many ways to discriminate against Negroes and because the brewery industry is not growing.

Lauten, Sylvia. Education and Race. National Urban League, New York, 1966. 39 pp.

Statistics on white-nonwhite and white-Negro education and race; education and employment; education and income; education and occupation. Concludes that, despite rising levels of education among Negroes, the gap between Negroes and whites in income and employment remain virtually unchanged.

League of Women Voters. Prospects for Education and Employment. League of Women Voters, Washington, D. C. 24 pp.

Summarizes the relationships between unemployment, education, and minority status. Reviews the remedies attempted by the federal and local governments through the Area Redevelopment Act, the Manpower Development and Training Act. the Job Corps, and the Civil Rights Act. References.

Lees, Hannah. "Self-Help in Philadelphia." The Reporter, Vol. 31, Dec. 17, 1964. pp. 15-17.

This article describes the Reverend Leon Sullivan's Opportunities Industrialization Center in North Philadelphia. This small job-training program has had great success. It is not known if such a small concentrated effort can be expanded to cover a city of more than two million.

Lelyveld, Joseph. "Racial Image Challenges Big Business." New York Times, Dec. 19, 1963. New York.

Public relations consultants are being increasingly called upon by their corporate clients for advice on how to deal with Negro demands for better jobs. Company employment policies are examined and recommendations made.

Lincoln, Eric. "The Absent Father Haunts the Negro Family." The New York Times Magazine, Nov. 28, 1965. p. 60.

A discussion of the Negro family structure, matriarchal in nature, which is unique in American society. The history of the Negro male is traced and the social sicknesses of crime and illegitimacy are analyzed. New patterns of Negro education, training, and employment are needed to change the status of the Negro male.

Lipset, Seymour M., and Bendix, Reinhard. Social Mobility in Industrial Society. Berkeley. University of California Press. 1959.

Emphasizing that it is the rate of economic expansion which is most significant in determining the extent of social mobility in society, the authors point out the factors inhibiting the Negro from sharing the opportunities presented by such expansion.

Lott, A.J., and Lott, Bernice E. Negro and White Youth, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1963.

This study explores the values and goals of Negro and white youth in areas most relevant to their educational and vocational choices and plans. Senior students of four Kentucky community high schools were studied. Subjects were tested with a Goal Preference Inventory, a modified form of the Study of Values, a Background and Outlook questionnaire, a Leadership Poll, and Frenche's Test of Insight. Student leaders in each school were interviewed. Results include (1) white students have greater economic and general home stability than Negroes, (2) no reliable differences were found between Negro and white groups with respect to affiliation motive -- dominant goals for both groups were to gain popularity, to achieve success, to attain security and knowledge; (3) Negro youth view the future with optimism and more positively than white youth despite their awareness of discrimination and prejudice.

Marshall, Ray. "The Negro and Organized Labor." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 32, No. 4, Fall 1963. pp. 375-389.

Discussion of Negro-union relations in the last decade. Reviews union racial practices, formal and informal exclusion policies, patterns in the building trades, the relationship of the policies of international unions to their locals, the problem of auxiliary and segregated local unions, and the control of job opportunities by craft unions. Also reviewed are the South's reaction to union organizing campaigns, political alliances between unions and Southern Negroes in some areas, and the development of public policy through action by courts, the NLRB, government contract committees, state FEP committees, etc., to change union racial practices. References.

Marshall, Ray. "Industrialization and Race Relations in the Southern U. S." Industrialisation and Race Relations. A Symposium. Ed. by Guy Hunter, New York, Oxford University Press, 1965. pp. 61-96.

". . . while industrialization might tend to produce relatively 'rational' behavior, this does not necessarily mean that race or status will become irrelevant in implover decisions or that racial occupation patterns will disappear very rapidly. The Southern experience suggests that employers will use Negroes where this is advantageous to them (lower wages, anti-union, dependable supply), but that the usual situation has been for them to discriminate against Negroes because of racial prejudices, fear of the reaction of white workers or the white community, or an abundance of white labour. The evidence suggests, therefore, that non-market forces are required to break racial occupational barriers."

McKersie, Robert B. "The Civil Rights Movement and Employment." Industrial Relations, Vol. 3, No. 3, May 1964. pp. 1-22.

Analyzes the various pressure tactics used by civil rights organizations for "jobs now." Their strengths and weaknesses are pointed out. The article considers alternative management responses to militants and moderates.

Means, John E. "Fair Employment Practices Legislation and Enforcement in the United States." International Labour Review, Vol. 93, No. 3, March 1966. pp. 211-247.

The first of a series of studies on the varied forms of discrimination in different parts of the world and the action being taken for their elimination. The nature of discrimination in the United States is reviewed, together with steps taken by the Federal Executive from 1941 to secure nondiscrimination in industries working under government contract. Discusses the evolution of fair employment practices legislation in the states and municipalities, the role of Congress in the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the attitudes adopted by the Supreme Court and the National Labour Relations Board toward discrimination in employment.

Mendelson, Wallace. "Discrimination in Employment." DISCRIMINATION. Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1962. pp. 69-114.

This book is a resume of the 5 volume report of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Discrimination in various areas is reported on: at the polls, in education, in employment, in housing, and in police misconduct. The Commission's recommendations are cited. Tables.

Michael, Donald. THE NEXT GENERATION. New York. Random House. 1965.

The author concludes that without long-term, extensive effort to eliminate the sources of low capability, a "Negro menial, unskilled worker society" will be perpetuated. Report prepared for President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime.

Miller, Herman P. RICH MAN, POOR MAN. New York. Crowell. 1964.

The author, an economic statistician with long experience at the Breau of the Census, analyzes the characteristics of the poor, the Negro-white income differential over time, and the relative economic advantages of education for Negroes and whites. Tables and statistics with commentary intelligible to the general reader.

Morgan, Gordon D. "Representation of Negroes and Whites as Employees in the Federal Prison System." Phylon, Vol. 23, No. 4, 4th Quarter, 1962. pp. 372-378.

Analyzes and interprets data on employment and race in various areas of non-specialized institutions of the federal prison system.

Morrill, Richard L. "The Negro ghetto: Problems and alternatives." The Geographical Review, Vol. 55, July 1965. pp. 339-361.

The object of this paper is "...to trace the origin of the ghetto and the forces that perpetuate it and to evaluate proposals for controlling it. The Negro community of Seattle, Washington, is used in illustration of a simple model of ghetto expansion as a diffusion process into the surrounding white area." The paper concludes: "Integrated residential living will become more acceptable as Negroes achieve equality in education and employment, but housing integration will probably lag years or decades behind. At most, we may expect an arrest of the extension of existing ghettos, their internal upgrading, and prevention of new ones. Experience certainly indicates a long wait for goodwill to achieve even internal improvement; hence a real reduction in ghettoization implies a governmental, not a voluntary, regulation of the urban land and housing market -- that is, enforced open-housing ordinances. Everything short of that has already been tried."

Morrow, J.J. "American Negroes--A Wasted Resource." Harvard Business Review, Vol. 11, January-February 1957, pp. 65-74.

In its own interest, industry should hire more Negroes. Many Negro workers could be upgraded almost immediately and others could be quickly trained to accept added responsibility. There is a lack in the quality and quantity of Negro education. Management attitudes and policies are of prime importance when Negroes are integrated into firms. The article gives helpful ideas and principles for integration.

Moynihan, Daniel Patrick. "Employment, Income, and the Ordeal of the Negro Family." Daedalus, Fall 1965. pp. 745-770.

Unemployment, occupational patterns, income and their effect on Negro family structure and status are discussed in the framework of the current civil rights revolution. Included are statistics on number of cases opened under AFDC compared with the unemployment rate of non-white males, 1948-1964.

Muse, Benjamin. LOUISVILLE. Special Report. Southern Regional Council. Atlanta. May 1964. 45 pp.

A report on progress in Louisville, Kentucky, in eliminating discrimination in schools, public accommodations, employment and housing. Also included is a report on the efforts of the Louisville Human Relations Commission to cope with race relations problems in informal and non-political contexts.

Muse, Benjamin. MEMPHIS. Special Report. Southern Regional Council. Atlanta. July 1964. 49 pp.

A report on race relations progress in Memphis, Tennessee, in schools, public accommodations, employment, and in numerous other community situations.

Newman, Dorothy K. "The Negro's Journey to the City--Part I." Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 88, May 1965. pp. 502-507.

Brief survey of what the Negro migrant experiences in housing, occupations, income and education.

Newman, Dorothy K. "The Negro's Journey to the City--Part II." *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 88, June 1965. pp. 644-649.

A comparison of Negro experience with those of white ~~immigrant~~ minorities demonstrates a tragic discrepancy in their degree of acceptance and inclusion.

Norgren, P.H. "Governmental Fair Employment Agencies: An Appraisal of Federal, State, and Municipal Efforts to End Job Discrimination." *Proceedings of the Fourteenth Annual Meeting of Industrial Relations Research Association*. Madison, Wisconsin. 1962. pp. 120-138.

A summarized account of the practices and experiences of the commissions that administer the fair employment practice laws in effect in 22 states and 7 major cities and of the successive "President's committees" established over the past 20 years to promote compliance with the non-discrimination clause in federal procurement contracts. Assesses the degree of success of these agencies in carrying out their assigned duty and makes suggestions for more effective governmental efforts in this sphere.

Norgren, Paul H. and Hill, Samuel E., with the assistance of F. Ray Marshall. TOWARD FAIR EMPLOYMENT. New York. Columbia University Press. 1964.

The authors of this book have surveyed the history of fair employment legislation up to 1963 and have concluded that effective state and municipal fair employment commissions with adequate budgets, staff, and enforcement powers can work to make all jobs open to members of minority groups, but that an adequate federal FEP law, modeled on the best of the state and municipal laws is also required to extend fair employment to every part of the nation.

"The Negro American." *Daedalus*, Vol. 94, No. 4, Fall 1965. pp. 743-1166.

The first of two issues on the Negro American. Partial contents: Employment, income, and the ordeal of the Negro family. An economic and social profile of the Negro American. On improving the economic status of the Negro. The Negro in politics.

Patten, Thomas H., Jr. "The Industrial Integration of the Negro." *Phylon*, Vol. 24, No. 4, Winter 1963. pp. 334-352.

A discussion of recent developments regarding the industrial integration of Negroes and the importance of organized leadership in obtaining further gains. The role of union opposition is viewed as an impediment to industrial integration of the Negro. J. F. Kennedy's President's Committee on EEO is examined, and suggestions for a positive action program to secure industrial integration are given.

Patterson, Barbara. THE PRICE WE PAY. Southern Regional Council and the Anti-Defamation League. Atlanta. June 1964. 45 pp.

An assessment of the costs in money and human resources incurred by the South's failure to grant equal status to Negroes. The data area gathered largely from Southern newspapers.

Perlman, Mark, editor, HUMAN RESOURCES IN THE URBAN ECONOMY. Baltimore. The Johns Hopkins Press. 1963. 265 pages.

Viewing the nation's urban centers as the producers of the labor supply and the consumers of the products of that labor, the papers in this volume, presented at a conference of the Human Resources Sub-committee of the Committee on Urban Economics, Resources for the Future, discuss the effects of discrimination against Negroes and women, consumer economics, and regional wage differentials and labor migration. Tables. References.

Pollard, Frances M. "Characteristics of Negro College Chief Librarians." College and Research Libraries. Vol. 25, July 1964, pp. 281-284.

"Basically, the original study sought answers to the following questions: Who are the Negro college librarians? What are their characteristics with respect to: (1) age, sex and birthplace; (2) extent and type of academic and professional education; and (3) extent of professional library experience? How do Negro college chief librarians compare in these characteristics with their white counterparts? Are the differences observed between Negro and white chief librarians significant?"

Potts, Georgena. "Conference on Equal Employment Opportunity." Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 88, No. 11, November 1965. pp. 1320-1321.

Provides a summary of reports from the recent White House Conference on Equal Employment Opportunity, August 1965. Indicates the variety of problems facing the EEOC. These problems have arisen in connection with the administration of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. They pertain to the choice of tools and techniques for recognizing and combating discrimination in employment; protecting complainants or informants from reprisals; and determining the extent to which Government agencies may try to overcome the effects of past discrimination.

Proctor, Samuel D. THE YOUNG NEGRO IN AMERICA 1960-1980. New York. Association Press. 1966. 160 pp.

Begins with the emergence of the young Negro who in 1960 seriously questioned the indefinite continuation of racial segregation. Discusses reactions to the aggressive moves of the young Negroes. It details attempts to reverse their situations.
Ways must be found to make the Negro an integral part of American society. The problems of overcoming deficits in Negro education are discussed, and the economic status of the Negro is outlined.

Randolph, A. Philip. "The Unfinished Revolution." Progressive, Vol. 26, December 1962. pp. 20-25.

A persuasive plea for job retraining as an answer to automation. Includes a short summary of Negro and labor union relations since the 1830's.

Richey, Elinor. "U.S. Plan to Break Cycle of Bias and Poverty." Negro Digest, Vol. 15, No. 9, July 1966. pp. 33-37.

Describes the U.S. Economic Development Administration's new industry revitalization pilot project in Oakland, California. Past discrimination in employment has caused the economy of the city to founder. The situation in Oakland is the same as in many other cities, so the project results will have nationwide significance.

Richmond, Charlotte. "Wider Horizons for Negro Workers." Reprint from Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Vol. 8, No. 4, December 1964. 3 pp.

A discussion of programs initiated both by the federal government and Negroes themselves to widen employment opportunity for Negroes. In the former category are the activities of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, and in the latter are such programs as the Opportunities Industrialization Center in Philadelphia.

Riessman, Frank. THE NEW ANTIPOVERTY IDEOLOGY AND THE NEGRO. Paper prepared for the White House Conference on Civil Rights, November 17, 18, 1965. 21 pp.

A call for a program to provide not only jobs, services and representation, but careers, rights and participation for the poor. Jobs are to be transformed into careers, services are to be recast as rights and representation is to be extended to direct participation in so far as possible.

Roberts, Gene. "Negro Education--For What?" The New York Times Magazine, November 19, 1961.

Discusses the situation in the South, particularly, where well-educated young people were unable to find jobs for which they were qualified, and were forced to go North and West in search of employment.

Rose, Peter I. THEY AND WE; RACIAL AND ETHNIC RELATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES. New York. Random House. 1964. 177 pages.

"This book describes some of the principal aspects of intergroup relations in the United States. It is a synopsis and evaluation of what sociologists and other social scientists have learned about America's minorities, the nature of prejudice, the extent of discrimination, and the reactions of minority group members to differential treatment."

Rosenberg, Bernard and Chapin, Penney. "Management and Minority Groups: A Study of Attitudes and Practices in Hiring and Upgrading." DISCRIMINATION AND LOW INCOMES. Aaron Antonovsky and Louis Lorwin, Eds. New York. New York State Commission Against Discrimination. 1959. pp. 147-194.

This study used data from questionnaires and interviews given to businessmen in the New York City suburban area. The businesses studied do not hire Negroes for work involving public contact, supervision of white workers, or white collar jobs. Employers gave a variety of reasons for discriminating against Negroes, but their reasons were often contradictory or unclear. Many businessmen are prepared to hire Negro workers in previously segregated jobs in spite of possible reactions from white workers and they agree that integration must be ordered by management. There are job openings for Negroes in technical areas, but not in clerical or secretarial work.

Russell, Joe L. "Changing Patterns in Employment of Nonwhite Workers." Monthly Labor Review, May 1966, pp. 503-509.

A comparison of the percent distribution of white and nonwhite workers in the civilian labor force.

Schivek, Louis B. MAN IN METROPOLIS. Garden City, Doubleday, 1965.

Contains accounts of the difficulties Negroes have in finding homes in suburbia, with the result that Negro workers in suburban plants face long commutes to the city ghettos in which they must live.

Schmid, Calvin F. and Charles E. Nobbe. "Socio-economic differentials among nonwhite races." American Sociological Review. Vol. 30, Dec. 1965. pp. 909-922.

"Well-defined and consistent patterns of socio-economic status exist among nonwhites in the U.S. Japanese rank highest in educational status with whites and Chinese in second and third places, respectively; Filipinos rank fourth, and Negroes and Indians, with identical scores, lowest. The occupational hierarchy is similar: Japanese, Chinese, and Caucasians hold first, second and third positions, respectively. Filipinos are fourth; Indians, fifth; and Negroes, sixth. On the income dimension, the white male population is in first place, followed by Japanese and Chinese. Filipinos are again in fourth place, but the rank-order positions for Negroes and Indians are reversed."

Schnore, Leo F. "Racial Changes in Metropolitan Areas, 1950-1960." THE URBAN SCENE. New York. Free Press, 1965. p . 281-293.

"Recent historical events have focussed increasing attention on various aspects of 'the race issue' in the United States. In this context, the sheer number and physical distribution of nonwhites are matters of fundamental significance. Long-term trends include the flows of both white and nonwhite migrants out of the rural South into cities in all regions of the United States. These movements became numerically noteworthy during World War I and are continuing to provide important migratory streams. It is the purpose of the present chapter to document some basic shifts in the color composition of metropolitan areas in various regions of the country -- shifts that have become dramatically evident in the past decade."

Shannon, Lyle W. and Krass, Elaine. "The Urban Adjustment of Immigrants: The Relationship of Education to Occupational and Total Family Income." Pacific Sociological Review, Vol. 6, No. 1, Spring 1963. pp. 37-42.

A study of the economic absorption of Mexican-Americans and Negro immigrant workers in a Northern industrial community. The relationship between years of education and occupational level of the first job was greatest for persons in the white control sample. The positive relationship of education with occupational level was significant only for the white sample. The conclusion is that higher levels of education and longer periods of time in the particular urban industrial community are associated with higher occupational levels and incomes for whites but do not consistently result in a similar trend for Mexican-Americans and Negroes.

Sherrill, Robert G. "The Obsolete Negro." *The Nation*, Vol. 202, No. 3, January 17, 1966. pp. 59-61.

A report on the condition of the Negro sharecroppers in Mississippi and their attempts to have a voice in the Agriculture Stabilization and Conservation Service Committee (ASCS). New York Representative Joseph Resnick went to Mississippi to investigate conditions and the recent ASCS elections. Social legislation and welfare programs are being effectively repealed by non-enforcement.

Shostak, Arthur. "Appeals from Discrimination in Federal Employment: A Case Study." *Social Forces*, Vol. 42, No. 2, December 1963 pp. 174-178.

In the summer of 1962, this author examined appeals records of 27 cases filed in the last 10 years in a northeast federal manufacturing and repair center. 25 of the 27 cases involved Negroes; most concerned failure to secure promotion, and only one appeal was decided in the appelant's favor. The author discusses ways in which the procedure of appeals served the applicants and the center. Overall, however, it is concluded that the procedure is a limited tool with essentially negative characteristics, which must be supplemented with more positive measures.

Shostak, Arthur B. "Improving Industrial Race Relations--part 2, Human Problems in Improving Industrial Race Relations." *Personnel Administration*, 26, March-April 1963. pp. 28-31.

Describes possible problems arising from poor relations between the President's Committee on Equal Employment and the personnel specialists of a company. Points out possibility of reverse discrimination and failure to support the efforts of the Committee. Includes suggestions for avoiding such problems.

Silberman, Charles E. "The Businessman and the Negro." *Fortune*, Vol. 68, No. 3, September 1963, pp. 97-99.

The Negro protest has taken various forms, but the most important of them is the demand for jobs. Although the government has attempted to secure the cooperation of businessmen through the "Plans for Progress" program of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity -which has been signed by over 100 corporations, most firms have done very little so far to honor their pledge.

Simpson, George E. and Yinger, J. Milton. RACIAL AND CULTURAL MINORITIES. 3rd ed. New York. Harper and Row. 1965.

Examines the whole area of majority-minority group relations with stress on the fact that this is merely one facet of human behavior. Partial contents: "Three approaches to race: the mystical, the administrative, and the biological;" The cultural factor in prejudice and discrimination;" "The sociolcgy of Anti-Semitism--a case study in prejudice and discrimination;" "Minorities in the economy of the United States;" "Intermarriage: interracial, interfaith, and international;" "Minorities and art;" "The reduction of prejudice and discrimination: changing the prejudiced person." An extensive bibliography is included.

Smith, H.P. and Anderson, Marcia. "Racial and Family Experience Correlates of Mobility Aspiration." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 31, 1962. pp. 117-124.

33 Negro and 33 white high school students, matched for age, sex, intelligence, and social status (upper-lower and lower-lower) were used as subjects to test the relationship between mobility aspiration, race, and family experience. The results as a whole showed no consistent association between the independent variables and mobility aspiration. Negroes and whites did not differ in achievement motivation. The Negroes had significantly higher educational-vocational aspirations than whites. It is concluded that the tendency of Negro youth to have higher educational-vocational aspirations seems to be on a fantasy level rather than a reality level.

Southern Regional Council. EXECUTIVE SUPPORT OF CIVIL RIGHTS. Atlanta. March 13, 1962. 52 pp.

Description of progress made and previous conditions in the federal service. Includes sections on "Appointments to high office" and "Employment: federal employment; contractor employment; other programs."

Southern Regional Council. ECONOMIC COSTS OF RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT. Atlanta. October 15, 1962. 5 pp.

This statement presented to the Joint Economic Committee of Congress in September 1962 by the Council of Economic Advisers, declares there are economic losses resulting from discrimination. These result from (1) inefficiencies in the use of the labor force resulting from failure to utilize fully the existing skills of our population and (2) failure to develop potential skills. If discrimination could be eliminated, estimated gains in wage and salary income, entrepreneurial income, and the labor productivity of the self-employed, suggest that the gross national product might be increased by 2.5 percent. Appendix.

Southern Regional Council. ATLANTA--THE NEGRO AND EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN THE SOUTH, THE THIRD OF A SERIES OF EMPLOYMENT STUDIES IN SOUTHERN CITIES. Atlanta. April 1962. 21 pp.

Number and status of city, county, state and federal employees in Atlanta, and methods used to avoid fair employment and promotional practices.

Southern Regional Council. A STUDY OF NEGRO FARMERS IN SOUTH CAROLINA. Atlanta. December 1962. 20 pp.

Study describing the meaning of federal agricultural programs for Negro farmers in counties in South Carolina (Farmer's Home Administration, Agricultural Stabilization, and Conservation Service, and Department of Agriculture Extension Service).

Southern Regional Council. PLANS FOR PROGRESS: ATLANTA SURVEY. Atlanta. Special Report. January 1963. 15 pp.

This report evaluates the effectiveness of the Plan for Progress initiated in Atlanta. 24 companies pledged their voluntary and affirmative support to eliminate job discrimination in all their branches, plants, and divisions. The consensus is that this program did not prove to be a generally effective tool. Only three of the 24 firms, Lockheed, Western Electric, and Goodyear, appeared to be genuinely interested in adhering to both the spirit and the letter of the plan. The criterion for success was "Has employment of Negroes increased, and have they been placed in non-traditional job categories?"

Speck, William H. "Enforcement of Nondiscrimination Requirements for Government Contract Work." Columbia Law Review, Vol. 63, No. 2, February 1963. pp. 243-265.

Legal discussion of constitutionality, coverage, and effect of omission of non-discrimination requirements; means of enforcement.

Streit, Peggy. "Princeton's Lesson: School Integration is not Enough." The New York Times Magazine. June 21, 1964. p. 14+.

The "Princeton Plan" for school integration succeeded so well that it brought nation-wide attention. They have now found that good schooling is not enough; along with it must go a change in community attitudes, opportunities for better jobs, and decent housing.

Taeuber, Karl E. and Taeuber, Alma F. "The Changing Character of Negro Migration." The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 70, January 1965. p. 429-441.

"Recently published data on migration during the 1955-60 period reveal that, contrary to the popular stereotype, Negro in-migrants to a number of large cities, despite the presence of a socioeconomically depressed group of non-metropolitan origin, were not of lower average socioeconomic status than the resident Negro population. Indeed, in educational attainment Negro in-migrants to northern cities were equal to or slightly higher than the resident white population. Comparisons with limited data for earlier periods suggest that, as the Negro population has changed from a disadvantaged rural population to a metropolitan one of increasing socioeconomic levels, its patterns of migration have changed to become very much like those of the white population."

Thompson, Helen. "Atlanta's 'segregated' approach to Integrated Employment." Public Personnel Review, 23, April 1962, pp. 117-121.

A fairly detailed description of Atlanta's efforts and the problems encountered--such as the high incidence of failure of the Negro candidates in written and physical examinations. The "segregated" approach refers to the establishment of separate eligibility registers.

Tobin, James. "On Improving the Economic Status of the Negro." Daedalus, Fall 1965, pp. 878-898.

Discussion of mobilizing existing powers of government to improve the Negro's economic position: the importance of a tight labor market, increasing earning capacity, and assuring living standards in the absence of earning capacity. Suggested are a system of basic income allowances, integrated and administered in conjunction with the federal income tax; extension of Medicare to citizens under age 65; and a recasting of agricultural policy to give income support to people on farms rather than price supports to crops. References.

Tuskegee Institute. RACE RELATIONS IN THE SOUTH--1963. Tuskegee. March 12, 1964. 42 pp.

Detailed discussion of the general situation and progress during 1963 in all aspects of Negro affairs. Considerable information on government and government contract employment. 50th Annual Report.

U.S. Civil Service Commission. STUDY OF MINORITY GROUP EMPLOYMENT IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. Washington: Government Printing Office 1965. 193 pp.

This report presents a detailed amplification of the summary data released by the Civil Service Commission. It is a comprehensive study of minority groups employed in the federal service: Negroes, Mexican-Americans, Oriental-Americans, American Indians, and Puerto Ricans. Tables.

United States Commission on Civil Rights. 1961 COMMISSION ON CIVIL RIGHTS REPORT, BOOK 3: EMPLOYMENT. Washington D.C. Government Printing Office. 1961. 246 pp.

Summarizes the following: (1) activities and experience of the several federal "fair employment practice" agencies that functioned between 1941 and 1961; (2) the nature and current extent of racial discrimination in administering federally subsidized vocational education programs, apprentice training; (3) racial discrimination by labor organizations. Recommends various governmental steps to correct racial employment discrimination in different areas.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. District of Columbia Advisory Committee. Special Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity. REPORT ON WASHINGTON D.C.: EMPLOYMENT. Washington D.C. July 1963. 52 pp.

Chapter 10 gives information on Government as employer and creator of employment. Presents specific problems of enforcement and information on federal and District government employment.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Michigan State Advisory Committee. REPORT ON EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS OF NONWHITE YOUTH IN MICHIGAN. Washington. 1966. 43 pp.

Analyzes the factors contributing to unemployment among nonwhite youth in the State as well as the affirmative programs being developed to counteract them. Based on findings obtained through three open meetings, interviews, and correspondence. Recommendations included.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Florida State Advisory Committee. REPORT ON FLORIDA. Washington. 1963. 51 pp.

Report on the general background of civil rights in Florida and on education, apprenticeship training programs, employment, and health facilities. Recommendations.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. North Carolina Advisory Committee. EQUAL PROTECTION OF THE LAWS IN NORTH CAROLINA. Washington D.C. 1962. 251 pp.

Chapter 4, Employment: includes sections entitled: Partial exclusion; North Carolina Employment Security Commission; Employment by the state government; Merit system agencies; Other government employment; Employment by federal contractors; State influence on private employment. Discussion and figures.

U.S. Conference of Mayors. Community Relations Service. EXPANDING EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN NEWARK: EXPERIENCE REPORT 101. Washington. March 15, 1965. 6 pp.

Community Relations Service describes the activities of the Business and Industrial Coordinating Committee. The report notes that a work study program for high school dropouts is in operation and many jobs are opening for minority group individuals.

"Employment of Negroes in the Federal Government, June 1964." Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 88, No. 10, October 1965. pp. 1222-1227.

Discusses the proportion of Negroes employed by the Federal Government according to pay plan, grade and salary level, agency and location.

"The Negro Entrepreneur." Occupational Outlook Quarterly, February 1966. pp. 19-22.

A discussion of some of the obstacles which face all business owners, particularly the Negro businessman, and steps that can be taken to overcome these problems.

U.S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bulletin 287. NEGRO WOMEN WORKERS IN 1960. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office. 1964. 55 pp.

Reviews the positions of Negro women workers. More are in the labor force than in the past and on the average they earn more. However, they are in a less satisfactory position than white women workers. The majority of Negro women workers in 1960 were service workers whereas the majority of white women were in the white collar jobs. Nonwhite women participate in the labor force in higher percentages with increasing age. The median earnings of nonwhite women in 1959 was $1,219 compared to $2,257 for all women workers. Tables. Figures.

U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. STUDY OF MINORITY GROUP EMPLOYMENT IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. Washington. Government Printing Office. June 1963.

Tables of federal employment by various minority groups, selected states, salary or class, and civil service regions, in 1962-1963.

U.S. Federal Executive Board. LAKE ARROWHEAD CONFERENCE ON EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY, OCTOBER 22-24, 1963--RECORD OF PROCEEDINGS. Los Angeles. 1963. 139 pp.

Discussion topics include personnel training and advancement; recruitment; explaining the federal government story to minority groups and the general public;and management climate for real equality of opportunity. Includes sample cases for discussion.

U.S. General Services Administration. Personnel Division. "Special Issue on Equal Employment." Personnel Exchange, 6, August 1963. pp. 1-10.

Discussion of the discrimination situation generally. Special emphasis on Negroes and specific steps by which GSA can improve its program. Also summary of program of federal government in general.

U.S. National aeronautics and Space Administration. SUMMARY REPORT: EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY CONFERENCE. Washington, D.C. July 29-31, 1963. 25 pp.

Summaries of addresses and discussions on community facilities, affirmative action techniques in personnel management, and investigation, hearings and corrective actions on complaints. Emphasis on Negroes, and on specific actions and steps to be taken.

Valien, Preston. "Demographic Characteristics of the Negro Population in the United States." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 32, No. 4, Fall 1963. pp. 329-336.

Discussion of the accelerated growth, increasing mobility, and continued urbanization of the Negro population and the implications for the educational, economic, and political development of Negroes. Tables.

Wachtel, Dawn. THE NEGRO AND DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT. Ann Arbor. University of Michigan-Wayne State University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations. 1965. 112 pp.

A discussion of discrimination in employment and unions and of methods of integrating the Negro into American industry. Efforts of Plans for Progress, a voluntary federal government-sponsored program against discrimination in employment, are outlined and further suggestions for implementation of this program are made. Tables. References. Bibliography.

Watters, Pat. "To Fulfill These Rights." New South, Summer 1966. pp. 26-46.

Report on the White House Conference "To Fulfill These Rights." Excerpts from the Advisory Council's report and recommendations are appended.

Weinberg, Joseph L. U.S. Department of Labor. Office of Manpower, Automation and Training. Division of Special Programs. REPORT: EVALUATION STUDY OF YOUTH TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT PROJECT, EAST LOS ANGELES. Washington. August 14, 1964. 52 pp.

Evluates in detail the program for disadvantaged Mexican-American and Negro youth in Los Angeles. Through the use of an intensive two-day group intake counseling technique, the staff was able to attract, motivate, and sustain the interest and energy output of these youngsters over periods of time sufficient to have them either find jobs on their own, or to place them in jobs or training programs. Tables.

Wilcock, Richard C. and Franke, Walter H. UNWANTED WORKERS: PERMANENT LAYOFFS AND LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYMENT. Glencoe, New York, The Free Press. 1963. 340 pp.

A careful investigation of the problems which arise when experienced workers--men and women, white and Negro--find themselves unemployed either because their employers have transferred plant operations to other areas or because technological changes have eliminated their jobs. The authors base their study on detailed surveys conducted in five cities. In the final chapters they assess existing and proposed measures for alleviating the problem of long-term unemployment.

Willhelm. Sidney M. and Powell, Edwin H. "Who Needs the Negro?" Trans-Action, Vol. 1, September-October 1964. pp. 3-6.

Subtitled "From the economics of exploitation to the economics of uselessness." The issue today is "a search for human rights in a world of machines that makes so many human beings utterly dispensable."

Workers Defense League. THE WDL APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING PROGRAM: REPORT OF A YEAR'S EXPERIMENT. New York. Workers Defense League. 1965. 25 pp.

A report on the progress made by the WDL Apprenticeship Training Program during its first year. Experience with the most important union situations is summarized. The program attempts to recruit, counsel, and place minority group members in apprenticeship programs, specifically attempting to aid disadvantaged youth in entering skilled trades traditionally closed to outside applicants. Problems faced by the staff in serving applicants are discussed.

Young, Whitney M., Jr. TO BE EQUAL. New York. McGraw-Hill. 1964. 254 pp.

Discussion of a program of special efforts which the nation should undertake in employment, education, housing, health, welfare, and leadership which offers an alternative to continuous and deepening racial conflict.

Young, Whitney M., Jr. Transcript of Hearing, AD HOC SUBCOMMITTEE ON THE WAR ON POVERTY PROGRAM. House of Representatives, Committee on Education and Labor. Washington. Government Printing Office. April 14, 1964. 27 pp.

An address by Mr. Young to the Subcommittee in which he outlines the poverty situation of Negroes and discusses the role of the Urban League in the War on Poverty. The address is followed by a committee discussion of Mr. Young's remarks.